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VOL. XCI.—NO. 2358. THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 8, 1910. PRICE TEN CENTS.

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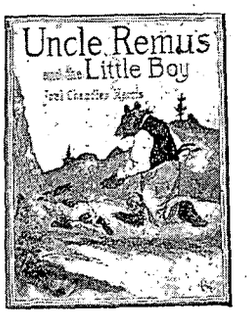

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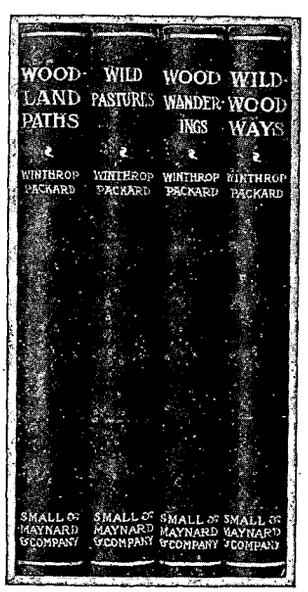

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 8, 1910.

The Week.

President Taft is fortunate in having been able to make up his commission on Federal regulation of railway securities in a way to inspire public confidence. In addition to President Hadley, who will be chairman, Mr. Taft has appointed two lawyers of high standing, one business man, and a professor of economics who has made a specialty of railway studies, having been chairman of the Wisconsin Railway Commission, and employed by the Census Bureau and the Interstate Commerce Commission as an expert on railway valuations. At the hands of so capable a commission, the country may be assured that the whole question will be thoroughly and impartially investigated; so that any report or recommendations that may be laid before Congress will have uncommon weight.

In the rapid conversion of Mr. Roosevelt to beliefs which he used to denounce, nothing is more astonishing than his coming over to the idea that the tariff is a moral issue. In his Saturday's address at Sioux Falls he spoke with vehemence of "the scramble of selfish interests" which goes to the making of a protective tariff—the Dingley law as well as the Payne-Aldrich bill—and said that when "we get a crooked deal" in the tariff, as he admitted that the people had, "then it becomes very emphatically a moral issue." But this is what Roosevelt when candidate and Roosevelt when President could never be got to concede. The tariff then was a mere fiscal measure, with a lot of wearisome details, in which he could not be induced to take any interest because it was not a moral question. During all the seven years of his Presidency he never once lifted a finger to remove the burdens and scandals of the then tariff in which, as he now confesses, the "general interest of the public" was "subordinated" to "the profit of the special interests." In the light of this experience, it is clear that, in Mr. Roosevelt's case, we need a new definition of what is "moral." A thing is evidently moral when votes and popularity can be won by advocating it, but is abysmally immoral if a man like Cannon goes to the White House and tells the President that he will hurt himself and his party by taking it up.

With two months now completed in the Government's new fiscal year, it is possible to get a clearer idea as to how the Payne-Aldrich tariff, a year after its enactment, is operating to raise the public revenue to a level with public expenditure. During the past two months, the regular expenditures (excluding outlay on the Panama Canal) have run $14,197,000 beyond the revenue. This deficit is less formidable than in the same two months a year ago, when the excess of expenditure was $21,520,000. But examination of the separate items shows that the tariff schedules were in no degree responsible for the better showing. Nearly all of the $7,341,000 reduction in the two months' deficit is accounted for by the $6,197,000 collected in the period from the new corporation tax, which did not figure in last year's finances, and which will figure very little in the finances of the next few months. The customs revenue for July and August was, in fact, $4,322,000 less than a year ago, and but for the fact that $4,500,000 postal deficiency was charged against those two months last year, whereas none at all was charged this year, the comparison of deficits would be still less favorable to 1910.

If the point is made that the tariff bill did not go into effect until August, 1909, and that, therefore, comparisons for the two months are unfair, it is to be observed that the public deficit for August alone is $4,585,000, against $8,419,000 in August, 1909, and that but for a $3,300,000 increase in the internal revenue, the result would have been very close to what it was last year. The gist of the matter is that the tariff law of 1909 is proving itself another of those hit-or-miss exploits in revenue legislation with which the tinkering of protectionist statesmen in the past has made the country unhappily familiar. This, it is needless to say, is the quite inevitable working of legislation framed primarily, not with the purpose of making both ends meet in the public finances, but with a view to shutting out as much foreign merchandise as the legislators dared to exclude. It is one of the incidental curses of the protective theory in tax legislation that it virtually prevents even the most enlightened statesman from constructing public revenue laws on a sound fiscal basis.

Quarrels in the Republican happy family of New Jersey are thickening daily. Ex-Gov. Stokes, who is himself a candidate for United States Senator, has just made a bitter attack upon Senator Kean. It was not placed upon the highest ground conceivable, for it was largely an arraignment of Senator Kean for not recognizing the honor that ought to exist among—politicians. Mr. Stokes comes from Cumberland County, and thinks that he is entitled to its delegates and its candidates for the Legislature as a matter of "courtesy." But to his horror he has discovered that there is a "Kean legislative ticket" in his own sacred preserve of Cumberland County. He asks plaintively what would be thought of a "Stokes legislative ticket" in Union County, Senator Kean's home. But in this falling out of New Jersey Republicans much useful truth is in the way of being told. Mr. Stokes, for example, had some pointed things to say of the way in which the Kean machine has been run by Federal office-holders and money. It is a "veritable Sibley campaign," alleges ex-Gov. Stokes, which John Kean is planning in New Jersey. Such charges, with the facts behind them, will not exactly hinder the election of Woodrow Wilson as Governor of New Jersey.

Insurgency in Minnesota has not such opportunities for display as in Wisconsin, but the announcement of the Chairman of the Democratic State Committee that Senator Clapp's seat is in no danger is indication enough of the strength of the Progressives in that State. A number of the Democratic candidates for the Legislature, hoping to win insurgent support, have pledged themselves to vote for Senator Clapp. The Minnesota primary law does not cover the Senatorship, and election must wait upon the Legislature's vote; no formidable opponent, however, has

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yet appeared. Frank B. Kellogg, the special attorney for the Government in the prosecution of Trust cases, is looked upon as a possible candidate, but it is regarded as unlikely that he will abandon his legal task now, as the cases must be re-argued. In the Congressional districts the candidates having the hardest time are those who have some taint of Cannonism. Representative Nye, who voted with Cannon in the fight on the rules, holds a shaky title to his seat in the Fifth District, and even Tawney finds his high-tariff associations embarrassing, although it is generally conceded that he will win in the primaries on September 20. All other districts are confidently expected to return Democratic or insurgent Congressmen.

The Kansas Republican platform adopted a week ago puts the party in that State squarely under "the Roosevelt banner," and passes over Mr. Taft with a brief appreciation of his success in obtaining legislation from Congress. But it emphatically dissents from the President when it comes to the question whether the Payne-Aldrich tariff really fulfilled the party's platform pledge of adequate tariff revision. The Kansas branch of his party is so dissatisfied that it, too, asks for immediate revision schedule by schedule—upon facts to be "scientifically" ascertained—a position which, we venture to assert, the Kansas Republicans will some day take the lead in leaving far in the rear. For nearly every schedule as it is examined will be found to enrich somebody at government expense or to be rotten with ill-concealed grafting.

Enormous election funds and "jackpots" were not the only sources of income for the thrifty Illinois legislator. There seems to be a general belief that the railway pass is an extinct institution. Yet on June 1, 1909, Representative Lee O'Neil Browne, now on trial for bribery, inserted the following afterthought in a letter addressed to Representative Charles A. White:

> P. S.—Have you sent for your transportation as yet?
>
> C. & A.: Write to president Chicago and Alton Railroad, Railway Exchange Building, Chicago, Ill.
>
> Illinois Central: Write to John G. Drennan, general counsel, Park Row, Chicago, Ill.
>
> Wabash Railroad Company: Write to Col. Wells H. Blodgett, general counsel, St. Louis, Mo.
>
> Pullman passes: Write to Hon. John S. Runnells, general counsel P. P. C. Co., Pullman Building, Chicago, Ill., for half a dozen sets Pullman passes and return, good sixty days.
>
> More later, as soon as lists are made out.

The Chicago *Tribune* records the fact that when the district attorney's office applied to the office of the Pullman Company for certain corroborative evidence, an official of the company declared:

> We will do nothing to injure Representative Lee O'Neil Browne. In this attitude I am doing as I have been directed.

How could a great corporation expect to do business if it did not stand by its friends?

It is to be hoped that the measure now before the Texas Legislature, providing for the abolition of the convict-leasing system and for other penal reforms, will not be put off for insufficient reasons. Members of the Senate, it is reported, are in favor of postponing the reform until the next regular session, so that the credit may fall to the account of Gov.-elect Colquitt's administration; and several leading journals are urging that the short time left to the present Legislature, now in its fourth extra session, is not enough for the drafting of a satisfactory bill. Gov. Campbell's friends, on the other hand, are anxious to push the matter. Remembering the abuses which the recent inquiry in the State disclosed, and also the intolerable conditions found in Georgia two years ago, the legislators should make haste to put an end to the leasing system and provide funds for purchase of the necessary State farms and for prisons. The experience of several States, which has shown that such farms can be made self-sustaining, answers the argument on the score of expense.

We have received a prospectus of the "Texas Purchase Movement," from which it appears that some colored people are going to see if they can carry out the suggestion of William Archer and many Southern writers on the negro problem by taking for themselves one State in the Union. The plan is simply to induce the Federal Government to purchase Texas from the people of Texas, "with all that it has and contains; with its entire outfit, including stock and crops; and to sell it to us, and give us one hundred years to repay the Government." The 800,000 colored people now in Texas will, of course, not have to be bought out, and when every negro in the United States has moved in, there is to be set up an independent republic whose sovereignty and independence are to be guaranteed by the United States. The projectors of this plan call it a "plain business proposition"; their reasons for it are pathetic:

> We are ready and anxious to go, many of us, because we receive very little encouragement to grow up our boys and girls into the best types of manhood and womanhood, for many of the laws are against our progress and development; and those that are for our special benefit are seldom enforced for our protection, and, indeed, we are coolly told we are the nation's burden.

Now, we sincerely hope that this plan to purchase Texas, or any other State, for the purpose of segregating the colored people will be pushed forward until its utter folly is clearly demonstrated. Imagine the howls of anger that will arise in Texas when it is learned that impudent negroes desire to buy out all the whites of the State. The mere suggestion is preposterous. Again, if all the negroes in the rest of the South should leave it for Texas, industry and agriculture would be prostrate. As there are already laws in most of the Southern States forbidding the enticing away of negroes in lots of fifty or more, it is easy to see what would happen if all the servants in Atlanta suddenly moved off to Arkansas. Finally, how could the negroes be kept in a segregated State? If some ambitious negroes wanted to leave to live in Michigan, could they be compelled by bayonets to remain within the confines of their State, by a sort of Chinese exclusion act?

Just two years' increase, added to the population of 4,766,883, which the official census gives New York, will bring the city to the coveted five-million mark. If normally sustained growth on a high plane of vigor is any indication of a city's physical and moral well-being, Mr. Gaynor's anger against New York's traducers is well justified. A great metropolis can make no spurts. Even a gradual slackening of its proportional growth is regarded as natural. No such

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situation exists with respect to New York, which grew by 38.7 per cent. during the last decade, as against 37.1 per cent. from 1890 to 1900. Of the five boroughs, Brooklyn, Bronx, and Queens have shown the expected tremendous growth. Manhattan, though it has added 481,449 to its population since 1900, nevertheless registers a fall from a 28 per cent. increase in 1890-1900 to a 26 per cent. increase in 1900-10. This is natural. Cumulative expansion in Manhattan should long ago have ceased. With regard to the Borough of Richmond the case is different. Richmond shows an increase of 28.3 per cent. for the last ten years, as compared with 29.7 in the preceding decade. This, for a thinly populated borough, is a poor showing; it is a rate of growth only four-fifths of the general rate for the city. The answer, of course, is transit. Even the swiftest of municipal ferry-boats are neither tunnels nor bridges.

The census reports of the population of the Michigan counties and of those cities of that State which have over 25,000 inhabitants each, show how rapidly the Middle West is changing from the almost purely rural community it was a few decades ago to what will soon be a predominantly urban section. Incidentally, they explain why many food supplies not materially affected by the tariff or the Trusts have so much advanced in price. In Michigan there are nine cities having a population of upwards of 25,000. All of these are in the Southern Peninsula and lie south of the forty-fourth parallel of latitude. Forty-seven counties of the State are in whole or in part on this side the same line. The population of these counties outside of the nine cities and that of those cities in 1900 and in 1910 compare as follows:

	Cities.	Counties.
1910	839,929	1,388,085
1900	540,977	1,390,431
Increase	298,952	
Decrease		2,346

When the census tells us the population of the State by minor civil divisions, it will doubtless appear that the smaller cities and the manufacturing villages have grown in the decade and that the decrease in the number of inhabitants of the rural districts has been even greater than is above indicated.

Acknowledgment of the capacity of women for work of the first order in scientific research is not yet so complete as to deprive the announcement made by Mme. Curie to the Academy of Sciences last Monday of a high degree of interest from this point of view, as well as from that of science itself. The discovery of radium, made by her jointly with her husband, became one of the landmarks in the history of chemistry and physics, and has in the years that have since passed been the source of a vast amount of experimentation and inquiry in every centre of scientific work throughout the world; and it is, therefore, peculiarly interesting that it has been reserved for Mme. Curie herself to accomplish the task of obtaining the pure element isolated, radium having hitherto been secured only in chemical combination with other substances.

Graduated inheritance taxes have shown an upward tendency, so far as large fortunes are concerned, in nearly all the many countries which have imposed them. In France and Italy duties payable by inheritors in the direct line, or by widows, are lower than those in Great Britain, ranging up to 5 per cent.; but duties payable by brothers and sisters and other relatives are higher. In Germany, where wives and children are exempt, an inheritance of a million marks is taxed at two and a half times the rate charged on 20,000 marks. In Australasia, the duties average 10 per cent. on estates of and above half a million dollars in Tasmania and New South Wales, and as low as a hundred thousand dollars in Victoria, Queensland, and New Zealand. In Great Britain the duties on the minor millionaire estates have increased from 7 to 8 per cent. in recent years, but from 8 to as high as 15 per cent. on "swollen" fortunes. In 1908 an estate of £3,448,692 paid the large duty of £469,003, being 10 per cent. on the first million and a super tax of 15 per cent. on the balance. In that year nearly £20,000,000 was received in duty on estates assessed at over £280,000,000. More than 150 estates of a million dollars or above were transferred by death in the twelvemonth. In the case of the average rich heir the death duties have meant the loss of the estate's income for a year or a year and a half.

American affairs were to the front on the first day's programme of the International Socialist Congress at Copenhagen. The old feud between the two Socialist parties in this country was fought out again. The result would seem to indicate that one of the two parties is bound to disappear from the field in the near future. This is the Socialist Labor Party of which Daniel De Leon is the leader and the only well-known member. The Socialist Labor Party is the parent of the present Socialist Party, but is now reduced to a mere handful which seeks to make up for its lack of influence by intensity of revolutionary fervor. In 1908 it polled 14,000 votes for President, as against 420,000 votes cast for the Socialist Party. Its decline was arrested for a time by the vigorous trade-union movement that went by the name of Industrial Workers of the World, fathered by De Leon. To-day the I. W. W. is decrepit and its most powerful support, the Western Federation of Miners, has applied for affiliation with Mr. Gompers's conservative American Federation of Labor. Something of its former prestige remained to De Leon's party abroad. But at Copenhagen, only one out of the fourteen American delegates was awarded to it.

There are absolutists and absolutists. In the Königsberg speech of the Emperor William, which aroused so much comment, he said: "Considering myself as an instrument of the Lord, without heeding the views and opinions of the day, I go my way." But it is easy to imagine a ruler, or a would-be ruler, giving the most anxious heed to the views and opinions of the day, yet in his heart scheming to secure himself in a sway as absolute as any that the Kaisers have ever been accused of desiring. Napoleon III boasted that he was a "plebiscitary" Emperor. He had not only consulted the wishes, but had asked the votes, of the French people, and felt his power more secure than dynastic right alone could make it. Indeed, the absolute monarch—or President—or expectant President—who can rest his claims to be independent of the Constitution or Congress or the laws upon the fact that the people have fondly confided to him all the power that he exercises, has a far easier time of it than the ruler by right divine.

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THE PRESIDENT ON CONSERVATION.

Mr. Taft's Labor Day address before the National Conservation Congress was as admirable in tone and spirit as it was comprehensive and thoroughgoing in scope. His acknowledgment of the great value of Mr. Roosevelt's work in this field was precisely such as a man of sincerity would feel called upon to make, and erred neither by excess nor by defect. And at the same time that it did justice to these services, it incidentally disposed of the position that the enemies of the conservation policy have been more and more assuming—the position, namely, that there had been no need of the whole agitation. "The danger to the state and to the people at large from the waste and dissipation of our national wealth" in the shape of natural resources has not only been a real and great danger, says President Taft, but one that has "always been present" to the minds of "scientific men and thoughtful observers"; but this condition of things might have gone on indefinitely had not some powerful agency made of it an urgent public question:

> Theodore Roosevelt took up this task in the last two years of his second Administration, and well did he perform it. As a President of the United States I have, as it were, inherited this policy, and I rejoice in my heritage.

But a general expression of adhesion to the principles of a sound national policy of conservation would in itself be of little significance in the face of the formidable opposition to which that policy is constantly exposed; and it is specially gratifying, therefore, that in several of the leading points at issue Mr. Taft emphatically takes ground against the position of those who favor the old and easy-going ways. This is preëminently the case in the matter of the leasing of coal lands. He disposes effectively of the plea that a leasing system would not be practicable because it has never been in use in this country; and this in two ways. In the first place, he points out that the assertion itself is not true, since coal lands in this country are in many instances worked under a system either of fixed rentals or of royalties, the owners not investing any of their own money in the plant; and, secondly, he refers to the report made at the instance of President Roosevelt upon the disposition of coal lands in Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand, which shows that a government leasing system is entirely practicable. Mr. Taft plants himself squarely on the ground that the true policy is for the nation to retain control of these and other mineral resources; and, while admitting that the task of devising a proper leasing system will be attended with difficulties, he insists that it can and should be accomplished.

On two of the questions that have been most subject to controversy, Mr. Taft contents himself with pointing out the nature of the issues involved, the present state of the law and of the facts, and the urgent necessity of intelligent action by Congress. We refer to the Alaska coal lands and the water-power sites. In the case of Alaska, the President preserves an absolutely judicial tone as regards the Cunningham and similar claims, and he makes no reference, either expressly or by implication, to the Pinchot-Ballinger affair. It is admitted on all hands that the law as it stands is utterly unsuited to the Alaskan situation, and the President is right in declaring that the problem of the disposition of the lands is one that could be settled by wise legislation in one session of Congress. As for the water-power sites, Mr. Taft sets forth the complexity of the situation as between State and Federal control, with some indication of how it might be dealt with; and it is important to note that he distinctly recognizes the danger of monopoly, and asserts the duty of the Federal Government to make such use of its possession of the water-power sites as shall insure the people against this danger.

Coming in immediate succession to Mr. Roosevelt's sensational speeches in the West, the careful and firm handling of this large subject by Mr. Taft cannot fail to suggest a striking and refreshing contrast. And in addition to its whole tone and temper, there are two utterances in Mr. Taft's address that stand out in express opposition to the Rooseveltian methods. "In these days," says the President, "there is a disposition to look too much to the Federal Government for everything. I am liberal in the construction of the Constitution with reference to Federal power, but I am firmly convinced that the only safe course for us to pursue is to hold fast to the limitations of the Constitution and to regard as sacred the powers of the States." And in the closing part of his address he declares that "the time has come for a halt in general rhapsodies over conservation, making the word mean every known good in the world." Emotional agitation is Mr. Roosevelt's *forte*, and impatience of every general law or principle that stands in the way of his immediate object is his most persistent characteristic. We are confident that Mr. Taft's appeal to the sober sense and the rational conservatism of Americans will meet with a hearty response from his countrymen.

MR. ROOSEVELT'S NEW PLATFORM.

We wish to be entirely fair to Mr. Roosevelt's speech in Kansas, and are ready to believe that it represents his sincere aspirations. To call it radical is doubtless only what he himself would call it; in one of his European addresses he said that he wanted to be known as a thorough radical. And if there are some things that are startling in this latest utterance of his, there are also some things that are gratifying. Mr. Roosevelt makes it plain that he has come to a much clearer view of the danger of "special interests" in legislation, especially in tariff legislation, than he used to have. What he had to say on this head has great force; and in any fight he may make for the rooting out of the mercenary and baneful influences that have stuffed our tariffs with graft, he deserves and will receive the support of all who have had their eyes opened to that corrosive evil.

One criticism that will generally be made of Mr. Roosevelt's careful speech on Wednesday of last week relates to its form. He put forth his views with the tone of the chief of a great party, and as a summons to a great political struggle, yet he never once mentioned the party to which he is supposed to belong and which has given him its highest honors, nor referred in the remotest way to the President to whom he sent a telegram last year pledging "loyalty." What are we to make of this? Are we to infer that Mr. Roosevelt proposes to found and head a new party, made up of elements from both the old ones? Is this speech to be taken as a bold bid for the Presidency in 1912? We do not know, and we do not imagine that Mr. Roosevelt himself

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yet knows. Before he started West he declared that his speeches would represent his own views, and as such he perhaps announces them merely to see what the effect will be.

The first effect will undoubtedly be to convince people that Mr. Roosevelt is now ready to go much further than ever before in the way of government control of business. In fact, his Kansas speech outstrips not only the most extreme utterance that he himself ever made previously, but that of any of the most radical men in public life in our time. It makes progressives like Cummins and La Follette look like moss-backed reactionaries, and Bryan himself appear pre-Adamite. For not only does Mr. Roosevelt favor having the government regulate the railways in every detail and with the utmost rigor, but would have it regulate Trusts dealing in the necessaries of life, such as meat and coal and oil, and also fix the "terms and conditions of labor"—that is, as he makes plain, the wages to be received and the hours to be worked.

Now, on the practical side of these staggering proposals for a vast series of new statutes, it is to be said that if they constitute an appeal for another term in the Presidency for Mr. Roosevelt, they appeal also for four or five terms, for not in twenty years could Congress work out in actual enactment all the laws which would be necessary to carry out Mr. Roosevelt's ideas. It is really the vice of such a presentation as his that it breathes benevolent desires, and sketches out vague plans of betterment, without even indicating where the Constitutional power can be found to warrant them, or how statutes could be drawn to execute them. All those things we presume that Mr. Roosevelt would dismiss as "mere details," which any clerk or secretary could attend to; but many an ambitious project of legislation has broken down hopelessly over mere details, and many another one will. In any event, the time which will necessarily have to be spent in debate and deliberation will be so great as to remove any fear that we shall either have a revolution or enter into a millennium overnight. So if any of our readers are frightened by Mr. Roosevelt's radical programme, we advise them to take courage. None of these things is imminent. We shall doubtless hear a great deal about them and they may result soon in party upheaval; but from that to actual realization is a long way.

To our mind, the worst effect of Mr. Roosevelt's speech will be its rousing of unfounded hopes in the breasts of thousands of the credulous and ignorant. They will read his words and will say, in a spirit of confiding trust from which the inevitable awakening will be cruel: "At last, here is the man to right all our wrongs. He will see to it that we get high wages and short hours; that the prices of the necessaries of life be cut down; that the rich man shall be abased and the poor man exalted; that dishonesty shall be entirely banished from our public life." It is pathetic to think of such expectations being formed only to be thrown to the earth and to make the subsequent discontent and bitterness all the greater. It is a fearful burden which any man binds upon his shoulders who allows the millions of strugglers who often despair to believe that in him and his measures they have a sure remedy for their woes. For a politician to do this inadvertently is a great misfortune; for him to do it deliberately is an outright wickedness.

UNDER THE POLITICAL SURFACE.

An experienced and sagacious political observer writes in a private letter:

> Never, within my recollection—which, I am sorry to say, now stretches over sixty years—has politics been so empty as now of either characters or consequence; while never, in all that time, has the underlying movement been so considerable, so portentous, or, also, so manifest. The trouble is that the movement now in process—the unprecedentedly rapid accumulation of vast wealth, very unevenly distributed—is beyond the reach of legislation; and so the actors on the political stage of the day have to content themselves with enunciating "progressive policies" and going through the subsequent motions.

This is a view of politics which has often been held by those whose minds are in the habit of going below the surface, and in it there is indisputably much truth. Economic and social forces are by nature more powerful than the play of political energy. Politicians vaguely feel the deep causes at work and seek to adjust their activities so as to take advantage of them; but oftener than not they appear like children trying to harness a volcano in eruption. Some great change supervenes, vitally affecting the pockets and so the emotions of large classes of citizens, and bursts through all the plans and manœuvring of the men in charge of public affairs, making them look like mere straws at the sport of the gale. It was not argument or a political party that brought about the repeal of the corn laws in England; it was the potato blight in Ireland. And, to take an example from our own country, what makes American protectionists tremble in their shoes to-day is, not the force of reason and of morality arrayed against them, as it long has been, but the sudden rise in the cost of living and the angry discontent which it has caused in millions of citizens.

Our correspondent is undoubtedly right in thinking that the present extraordinary confusion in our political situation is due to causes which scarcely swim into the ken of the ordinary politicians. They know that something is astir, but what it is and how to deal with it they are ignorant. Sentiments have been created which are too strong for party. When party lines are crumpled and cut through as we see them to-day, the inference is irresistible that parties have got out of relation to the deep underlying dissatisfactions and cravings of the mass of the people. Speeches are made and resolutions adopted and programmes marked out in the hope of getting things back where they were before, but all is of little avail. Herbert Spencer said at Biarritz, pointing to the incessant beat of the waves, that the great social forces sweep in upon us, making the individual politician look like a pigmy —"what is to be will be, and no man's arm can stay it." Meanwhile, the men with nostrums and "policies" cut rather a comic figure as they are knocked about by the huge rollers, though they pretend to be riding the whirlwind and directing the storm.

Such times of upheaval as we are now passing through furnish a useful test of the stuff which is in public men. Their behavior in the presence of movements that are not only breaking up parties but threatening to sweep away ancient landmarks, enables us to decide whether they are really statesmen or mere time-servers. Some one has compared a party leader, even when he appears most powerful, to a man in a boat at the mouth of one of the great tidal rivers of Australia, waiting

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for a favoring wave to carry him over the bar, and then, when once safely across it, accepting the plaudits of the multitude acclaiming his skill and strength as an oarsman. That is, of course, the very model of the opportunist politician, taking occasion by the hand; and in ordinary times neither he nor his success is to be despised. But when a nation is torn and distracted, not knowing which way to turn, and in danger of rushing down a steep place into the sea, opportunism is as futile as trying to put out a conflagration with rose-water. The qualities of true leadership are then demanded, and will come out if they exist.

One thing which the true political leader will do in a period of seething discontent and threatened disturbance is to draw a clear line between public ills that are remediable by legislation and those that are not. The quack doctors of politics, ready to fool the people to the top of their bent, have a law to propose for every political trouble; they draw out their successive legislative patent-medicines with all the skill and less than the conscience of the street-corner vender. But the honest practitioner will tell the truth about the ills to which mortals have always been subject, and always will be so long as they live in communities, and will advise the necessary endurance of those, with as much patience as may be, while the attention is given to what need not be endured because it can be cured.

As for actual remedies and the true course to follow, the wisest and bravest leaders must often confess themselves at a loss. In proportion to their wisdom and patriotism will they feel that the forces which circumstances beyond their control have let loose are too mighty for any political contrivance. They will be cautious and modest; will make no big promises; will try experiments rather than announce successful demonstrations with a flourish; and will feel their way to gains by painful inches. Only of one thing will they be supremely confident, and that is that trimmers and demagogues and charlatans and hypocrites must be shown for what they are and fought to the death.

JOHN BROWN AND KANSAS.

The celebration in Osawatomie of the opening of the John Brown battlefield as a State park is but one of many illustrations of the tenacity with which Kansas clings to the memories of its *Sturm und Drang* period. Its pioneers are truly of gigantic frame; their deeds of Homeric grandeur. Wherever there resides one who can say that he stood at Lawrence with John Brown, or heard Gen. Reid's shots at Osawatomie, or marched with Gen. Lane on some of his wild dashes across the prairies, there is a man who is admired and respected of his neighbors. To be a Son or Daughter of the Revolution or a member of the Cincinnati is as nothing compared to the fortune of having been a Free State fighter. Even among the oldest settlers there are marked distinctions and class divisions. Thus, to have arrived in Kansas in 1855 is to be assured of a place close to the immortals. The human crop of 1856 stands next in order of merit—but 1855 and 1856 look down upon 1857 and 1858 much as a *parvenu* with a million dollars despises him who has an income of but $10,000 a year. The bar sinister of having been an emigrant in later years is only really bearable if one can claim to have witnessed Quantrill's raid and seen Lawrence in blood and flames.

Then when it comes to the leaders, while Kansas presents an unbroken front to the rest of the world, behind its serried ranks a great battle goes on merrily and with no sign of abatement. To the casual observer there could be no greater heat, fifty years after an historic period, than appears in the discussions as to who was the actual saviour of Kansas. Like all Gaul, Kansas is divided into three parts: the Kansas of Senator James H. Lane, of John Brown, and of Gov. Charles Robinson. To the closest followers of Robinson, John Brown is merely a murderer, and Lane a man of words who plotted, vainly, diabolical things. The Brown and Lane partisans see in Robinson only a tricky, compromising diplomat, who perceived in negotiation merely the opportunity to lie and cheat. Lane's followers are still under the spell of his wonderful eloquence, of his brigadier-generals' commissions scattered far and wide, of his erratic but brilliant personality. Yet so great is the loyalty to Kansas in every true Kansan heart that all, or nearly all, of the factionists can unite around a statue to one or attend a ceremonial for another in perfect good humor—until the next opportunity to rush into print.

Similarly, everything relating to the Free State times becomes—and rightly—of precious moment, to be kept in one's parlor next to the pictures of the dear deceased, the family photograph album, and the last issues of the *Outlook* and *Ladies' Home Journal*. When a home is broken up in which are manuscripts or relics, an alert agent of the State Historical Society is sure to be on hand. How much richer would the country be to-day had there been similar reverence fifty years after the Revolution for survivals of that time of national stress! As it is, Mount Vernon, we are sure, is no more tenderly cherished than this Osawatomie battlefield and the near-by Adair cabin in which John Brown lay ill of typhoid fever in the summer of 1858. John Brown *did* things—that is one reason why he appeals so to Kansas.

The little skirmish at Osawatomie in which he with forty-odd men exchanged a few volleys with Gen. Reid's hundreds, can hardly rank as one of the world's great conflicts. Yet Kansas will not forget that as he was hurrying to the battle-ground he said to one of his men, Luke F. Parsons, who has just been addressing the crowd at Osawatomie: "Take more care to end life well than to live long"; and that this skirmish was one of the first determined efforts to meet Border Ruffian violence with violence. Remembering this, Kansas is apt to overlook the Pottawatomie murders committed by John Brown and his sons in the dead of night, and the fact that Reid's attack on Osawatomie was a direct outcome of those same murders. Reid sought to avenge them by driving Brown's men out like a "flock of quail," he afterwards said—for, a Mexican War veteran, he never would admit there was a battle at Osawatomie—and by burning the hamlet. The gloss of time has done its work, and John Brown's good deeds loom up bravely, and the others are forgotten. It is emphatically a case where the good that men have done is not interred with their bones. John Brown spent, all told, but twenty-two months in Kansas at varying intervals. He never took part in a single constructive action in the build-

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ing up of Kansas as a State, save in so far as his fighting may be adjudged of constructive value. He came neither to settle nor to build up. Yet there, on the soil which, as he himself said, was "watered by his children's tears and blood," his memory is preserved as if he had been Kansas-born, Kansas-bred, and had perished for Kansas and not for the slave.

The secret of all this is, of course, a simple one. John Brown fought in Kansas with absolute unselfishness and for a noble cause. His readiness to die for others assures him his niche in the Kansas Hall of Fame. Beside this the details of his career are often forgotten. Whether this is for the best or not, no one will deny that gratitude towards the notable figures of a past generation cannot be too highly commended. The more Kansas clings to its unselfish patriots, the more likely is it to take an unselfish view of present-day political problems.

SOLID READING.

Dr. Eliot's failure to bring together a library ideally adapted to railway reading casts no essential discredit on his five-foot shelf. The incident has been seized upon, of course, as another instance of the degeneracy of modern literary taste. What it actually does prove is that people travel on trains now who did not travel fifty years ago. In the welter of discussion that surged about the five-foot shelf, the original purpose of that miniature collection was lost sight of. Dr. Eliot asserted that any man to whom the benefits of a cultural education had been denied in youth could secure the essence of a cultural education out of the fifty volumes on his five-foot shelf. Recall this special public that Dr. Eliot had in mind, and there is little occasion left for the huge merriment aroused by the inclusion of such palatable bits of reading as the "Journal of John Woolman" or Izaak Walton's Lives of the poets Donne and Herbert. Dr. Eliot was no fanatic of the old school which holds that all reading must be solid and edifying. But he did know that to the man whose hunger for books has never been satisfied, no book can be too heavy, whereas very many books might easily be too light. The long-denied appetite for the printed word might easily be disappointed if set to work on chocolate and mayonnaise, where precisely such a book as Woolman's or Walton's will answer to the reverent awe with which the unlettered man looks upon Books.

Too much of the criticism that is being directed against a debauched literary taste overlooks the enormous extension that has come over the functions of reading. The exercise of reading to-day does not mean what it meant five hundred years ago, nor even what it meant fifty years ago; and yet we insist on investing it with the dignity and importance which the exercise enjoyed in the past. Five hundred years ago, and to a proportionately less extent fifty years ago, books answered to a comparatively restricted measure of a man's needs. A man in those days had his religion, which he found in the Church; his artistic sensibilities, which he satisfied in the contemplation of architecture and sculpture and painting; his amusements, which he obtained in martial exercise or in travel, or in pageants, or in public festivals, or in gossip in the public square; and he had his books. To these he turned, in the familiar phrase, when he wanted to commune with the greatest thoughts and the greatest souls of the past. To-day the average man has no such variety of avocations. To satisfy our æsthetic demands, we read books on art. To satisfy the curiosity for new lands and new faces, we read books of travel. To satisfy the human desire for pageantry and festival, we read romantic novels. To satisfy the human desire for laughter, we read the comic journals. We no longer gossip in the public squares, but read newspapers. Our rural population does not dance on the village green or attend weekly market-fairs and engage in wrestling and single-stick exercise; our farmers nowadays stay at home and read.

It stands to reason, therefore, that a higher solemnity must have characterized the practice of reading when books meant high intellectual and moral communion, than can attach to reading to-day when books answer to the appetite for instruction, religion, art, recreation, physical exercise, gossip, horse-play, pageantry, laughter, and scandal. You will find college professors to-day who stave off mental fatigue by a deep plunge into literature of the Nick Carter and Deadwood Dick type. Yet the professor's labors over the latest German treatise on experimental psychology and his excursions into Nick Carter are described by the same word—reading. The tired business man of a hundred years ago found his recreation at the inn or at his guild meeting. To-day he goes to the theatre and reads novels, and the fare set up for his entertainment goes by the name of literature. The good name of literature suffers in the process; but it need not if one would only remember what a throng of vastly different appetites sit down to the same table. Art does not suffer because the same chisel and mallet that shape an exquisite bit of carving may be used to build an outhouse. It is merely accident that the same happy idea of Gutenberg's should have become the medium for holding Dr. Eliot spellbound and entertaining the shop-girl who chews gum and says "foist."

If modern life had kept something of the well-rounded existence that was the gift of an earlier age, cheap reading would now be less plentiful. We cannot help thinking in this connection of the man who has excited so much interest of late as the advocate and practitioner of the old-fashioned solid reading. Mr. Gaynor's fondness for Marcus Aurelius, Epictetus, and Montaigne is not a speradic appetite, but fits in admirably with his entire mode of life. When Mr. Gaynor reads, he reads solidly; when he wants recreation, he walks, attends to the hay on his farm, and looks after his horses and his pigs. A man so engaged is apt to find no time hanging heavy on his hands nor much inclination for what we call light reading.

OLD-FASHIONED REMARKS ON EDUCATIONAL TOPICS.

I.

"The chief trouble with education in this country," said a friend of mine the other day, "is that it is too much discussed by the uneducated." As this remark was made immediately after I had stated that I had rashly promised to write an article for the Educational Number of the *Nation*, I was not quite sure whether I ought to take it as an epigram or as an insult. It seemed, on reflection, wiser to take it as an epigram, and to use it as the text of my article, especially as choice of a text does not necessarily mean that one must stick to it.

For the benefit of the numerous people who in the past few years have

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published books and papers upon the conditions obtaining in our educational institutions, particularly our colleges, I will hasten to say that my friend is an old-fashioned person, and that by his phrase, "the uneducated," he meant to designate all such unfortunate individuals as have never received, or else never adequately utilized, a training in the Greek and Latin classics. This statement will enable those who may take exception to his epigrammatic remark to take a measure of his intelligence. In order that they may not so readily take a measure of mine, I will abstain from saying whether I agree with him or not—a needless precaution, since I am in duty bound to add at once that I have read but little of the educational literature which called forth the very uncomplimentary generalization selected as my text. Instead of discussing and reading about education, I have been engaged for twenty-five years in the humbler task of teaching.

If this experience warrants my passing any judgment upon the general condition of education in America, such judgment must, on the whole, be distinctly favorable. During a quarter of a century, three-fifths of it spent in the South and two-fifths in the North, I have never yet been confronted by a class the major part of which did not seem ready and competent to take whatever instruction it was in my power to give. Furthermore, among the numerous colleagues I have had I can recall but few who, through their known incompetence or their dislike of their vocation, might be presumably unable or unwilling to make a statement fairly similar to the one I have just made. Finally, for ten years I have been teaching graduate students from all parts of the country, most of whom intend to be teachers, and I cannot but believe that the training these men and women have brought to the university represents, in the main, better work on the part of their previous teachers than was to be found a generation ago. I must believe also that these future teachers, whom my colleagues and I are endeavoring to prepare for their profession, will make possible a far greater advance in popular education in the next quarter of a century than the past twenty-five years have witnessed.

These optimistic remarks, however, to be entirely frank, are made in order that I may secure a more complacent hearing for certain strictures. What I have said amounts to a statement of my belief that we have a fairly good and promising system of democratic education for a democratic people. I have said nothing about the kind of education which may be denominated, in a broad sense, aristocratic, the education which makes for intensive culture of the individual and the class, which endeavors to choose from the vast range of studies those that presumably furnish the best mental and moral discipline and at the same time conduct the student into the highest regions of thought and emotion, which, finally, uses as a shibboleth the word "disinterested" rather than the words "useful" and "practical." This sort of education, which was more or less imperfectly given when I was a boy in the best private schools and in the colleges, seems not only to occupy a position of less relative importance—that was to be expected from the circumstances attending our rapid growth as a people—but to be less excellently administered, speaking absolutely, than was the case a generation or two ago. The culture of the modern college graduate may be better adapted to the world in which he has to live and move than it would have been if the conditions of aristocratic education in this country had remained constant, or had developed along conservative lines. The point is that, in my judgment, the culture of the body of college graduates is a different thing from what it used to be, and that no one has yet proved that it is a better thing.

II.

It will be perceived at once that I am getting back to my text. My friend's epigram was prompted by the conviction that harm has resulted to American education from neglect of the classics, not to say from positive hostility to them. And when I point out the difference I seem to perceive between the culture of the college graduate of to-day and that of the graduate of a generation or two ago, it is obvious that I am pointing to a phenomenon partly or chiefly caused by the relegation of the classics to a less important position in the curriculum, or if one chooses so to phrase it, by the rise of scientific and other modern studies to a place of equal or of superior importance. I shall not inquire how far the teachers of the classics are themselves responsible for their own comparative eclipse, or how far one can expect a new and mixed public to profit from an ancient and select discipline. What interests me now is the fact that there nas been a change, that that change seems to have substituted a heterogeneous for a homogeneous culture, that it has been chiefly accomplished by persons whose shibboleth is the word "useful," and that, now that it seems to be accomplished, we find our schools, colleges, and universities subjected to a larger amount of adverse criticism than has been the case for many years.

Its typical product is what we call "the college boy" or "the college girl," a product which, as I have observed, may be well adapted to the age and country in which it has to live, which is certainly adapted for use in Gibson pictures and for newspaper exploitation. Whether it is adapted to play the part in cultivated society expected of the product of the old fashioned college, or whether, indeed, a cultivated society, as the term has been vaguely used, is expected to play any part in the democratic régime of the future, these are questions I do not feel competent to discuss. I am old-fashioned and middle-aged and merely a teacher. When I find among young people a lack of standards in matters intellectual, to say nothing of other matters equally important, it may be that I am only judging modern life by standards inculcated in me by my ancestors and by my teachers, who subjected me to a rigid discipline, based chiefly on the classics. That I should admire the modern American college is impossible; that I should censure it would be rash; that I may cherish the belief that it is passing through a transition stage and that it will see the need of creating for itself a new and true discipline out of its heterogeneous curriculum, may, I hope, be permitted me. May I be permitted also to inquire once more whether many of the critics of the modern college are not at bottom *laudatores temporis acti*, although they may little fancy that they are playing that part, whether they are not demanding of the college of to-day results produced by the old discipline without realizing that the present no-discipline—I mean, of course, in the main, lack of correlated mental and moral training—was more or less forced upon the college when, in answer to outside pressure, the academic authorities of the country began to modify its educational institutions in order to give a so-called useful education alongside of or in place of a disinterested culture?

I am not sufficiently well posted in matters of educational policy to be able to discuss the efforts making in certain of our larger institutions to render less amorphous the product—the mercantile phrase seems apt—they are yearly turning out. Some persons seem to be looking toward England for help in their time of trouble, a procedure to which I have an instinctive rather than a reasoned-out aversion. No other people has our social structure, or, presumably, our educational needs, and I expect little relief until we have analyzed thoroughly our own situation. Perhaps, too, I have a feeling of jealousy for my own profession. I do not want to see a class of men resembling the English Dons domesticated in our American universities. This statement may be prejudiced, but it is at least frank.

Other persons appear to place reliance on a stricter system of supervision, that is, on a more rigid discipline in the narrower sense of the word, and on a more detailed system of premiums and rewards. Here again I feel myself scep-

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tical. The process of putting ribbons and bells around the necks of academic sheep, and of carefully penning up the goats early in the evening, may fill certain shepherds and goatherds with satisfaction; but I doubt whether it will change essentially the character of the flocks committed to their charge. What I mean by goats and what I mean by sheep need not be explained, since, while I desire to be frank in these remarks, I do not wish to be considered insulting. What I am chiefly concerned with is the endeavor to emphasize what I believe to be the main cause of the widespread dissatisfaction that exists in some quarters with regard to the work of the American college. We are requiring it to do all sorts of things for all sorts of people, and then wondering why it does not do an ideal sort of thing for a special sort of people. We have got ourselves in an *impasse*.

How we shall get out of it is a question for time to answer. Meanwhile those of us who are teaching can do our best with our classes and can also try, in our respective ways, to clear up in the mind of the public the difference between a disinterested culture and a practical education. Perhaps in time, certain colleges will be able to emphasize to a greater degree the tried classical discipline and to cease to compete with the technical schools. There is room in this huge country for institutions of every kind, and there are still people who would gladly give their children an old-fashioned education, that is a discipline that has been tested, under teachers convinced of its merits and not hampered by the necessity of defending it against colleagues who do not believe in it. I should like to see institutions of the old, less complex type and institutions of the new, heterogeneous type, as well as technical schools and high schools doing the work of colleges, all flourishing side by side in friendly rivalry. Long after this generation is in its grave, there may possibly be data for determining in a rough way the respective merits of the respective systems of discipline. Then, if the classically trained man shall be shown to be incapable of more than holding his own with his rivals, even in their own specialties, I shall certainly break away from whatever confines shall be hemming in my shadowy being, and shall return for a brief space to earth, in order to rend my spiritual garments. Pending this dire consummation, I shall change the subject.

III.

The American university seems, like the college, to have been subjected to a considerable amount of criticism, one reason being in both cases the increasing publicity given by the newspapers to whatever can furnish news. Heaven forbid that I should undertake to explain why any intelligent man or woman should want to read college or university news, or that I should argue that institutions of learning would do their work better if the press did not exploit them. I have confessed to being old-fashioned; there is no reason to confess that I am antediluvian enough to believe that notoriety is a simplified way of spelling vulgarity.

Criticism of the university does not chiefly result, as seems to be the case with the college, from the confusion apparent in its aims. Some persons, it is true, are inclined to look upon the university as a home of culture rather than as an institution designed for the encouragement of learning and research and for specific training in the professions. I see no inherent reason why, in certain senses, the university should not be a home of culture, but I do not think that its primary work is to give poorly trained college students an opportunity to make up their cultural deficiencies or to teach aspiring people how to write books and plays or to paint pictures or to play the organ. It is true that, to judge from the letters people write to professors, one might imagine that the public fancies that a university exists for disseminating information on every possible subject to every possible person; but, on the whole, it is either fairly well recognized, or it will be recognized before long, that the prime functions of the university are to encourage scholarship and to give professional training. Recognition of this fact will sooner or later carry with it acquiescence in the specialistic trend of university teaching and in the established differentiation between the American and the British types of university.

There will still remain, however, ample scope for misunderstanding and for adverse criticism as long as the aims of those professors whose chief interest is in training scholars and of those whose chief interest is in training teachers continue to be as confused as they are at present. Complaints are constant, for example, that students who wish to be trained to teach English literature are forced to take courses in Gothic and other equally remote subjects, or to write learned disquisitions on topics which can be of little service to them in their teaching. Some persons advise us to cut the knot by resolutely striving to make scholars of all who take post-graduate courses under the so-called non-professional faculties; others tend to practical pedagogical training; others try to blend the two forms of teaching. Confusion and consequent censure seem thus to be inevitable. The only suggestion I can make is that we should try to look the facts in the face. Most of the students who study under non-professional graduate faculties in America expect to become teachers of one sort or another. Teaching is a profession which sustains varied relations with what we know as scholarship and scholarly research. Not to try to carry our students some distance along the specially chosen path of learning would be bad for professor and student alike, and would ultimately be fatal to the profession of teaching. Not to recognize that nine out of ten of our students have no need for advanced scholarship and could not attain it, even if they needed it, is, without exaggeration, to insult common sense on the one hand and scholarship on the other. What way is there out of this dilemma? What but the resolute grasping of both its horns? Surely, each professor or each department must consult the needs of every individual student and give that student the best training possible under existing conditions. This means, I think, the training of many teachers and few scholars, but that is what the country needs, and the university exists to serve the country. Perhaps in time we shall improve the degree of master of arts until its possession will imply all the training for teachers that a university is normally expected to give, and then we can reserve the degree of doctor of philosophy, which is now very foolishly demanded of many would-be teachers and professors, to reward students who promise to be scholars in their specialties. These, however, are mere details to be worked out by the various faculties. The important point is that the public, both academic and non-academic, should recognize the fact that the university exists to give specialistic training, but that that training need not necessarily be carried to the point where it results in making scholars in the true sense of the term. When this point is fully grasped, we shall be spared having continually to explain that men and women can be well educated persons and successful teachers without being true scholars, just as a man can be a good preacher and parish priest without being a profound theologian. And those who have grasped this point may be prepared to admit that even in a democratic country there is a place for a form of aristocratic education. Strive as we will for equality, there are some spheres in which inequalities will assert themselves to the end of time, and that of learning is one of them.

IV.

The topics I have been discussing are not, however, those in which the public that considers universities at all is most interested. The topics we hear most about are chiefly connected with complaints about the scant salaries paid professors, about the tyranny of presidents, about the non-scholastic activities of students, and the like. With regard to athletics and other forms of student ebullience, I have really nothing to say.

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When I held an executive position in a faculty, I was too young, and student activities were too undeveloped, for me to get a fair grasp of the situation. At present, I have no direct responsibilities in this matter, and my advice is not needed. It is either just as well for me or just as well for the young barbarians that I am a gray-bearded outsider in full sympathy with the much abused American parent, but with no opportunity to make that sympathy effective.

As to the salaries paid professors, my views are likely to be thought biassed. It seems to me that salaries are too low, especially those of the younger men; but I do not think that they are surprisingly low, in view of the facts that they are often bargained for, that there is a considerable supply of fairly well-trained persons ready to fill chairs, that this is a commercial country with preponderatingly commercial standards. That low salaries, if persisted in, will result in a deterioration of the professorial class seems probable; but I do not believe that there is much chance that the American people, who have the shrewdness that goes with commercial success, will allow their scholars and teachers to be permanently mingled with social classes beneath them in general refinement. The Carnegie Foundation and the efforts making in several of the larger universities will almost surely improve the situation, and it is to be hoped that the professor of the future will not in every instance be compelled to marry for money.

With regard finally to the tyrannical sway university presidents are often said to exercise, I know of no more fitting comment than Mr. Burchell's "Fudge." That, in our rapidly evolved institutions, the administrative machinery has not worked perfectly may be granted at once. That the faculties, which, if entrusted with full control would probably have given us anarchy, have lost too much power, especially with regard to purely scholastic matters, is probable; but I see no reason why, if this be so, proper remedies may not be found. I trust I am as zealous for the rights and privileges of my class as any one; but I have a shrewd notion that even more to be pitied than the professor whose energy is chiefly absorbed in administrative routine, is the president, who has to keep an even hand between rival departments and faculties, who must soothe irritated scholars, who is obliged to think of ways and means when others can talk glibly about ideals, who finally is expected to sacrifice all thought of privacy and to make himself an acceptable public speaker on every subject under the sun. Not the least of his misfortunes is the fact that, like all other chief executives, he must get most of his information at second hand, and that almost inevitably he finds himself, before he knows it, surrounded by satraps not remarkable for their sapience. Poor downtrodden professors, indeed! It is rather poor tugged-at and fagged-out presidents. When it can be proved beyond doubt that they have tyrannically forced a worthy professor from his chair, they ought, of course, to be held to strict account. Fatigue is no excuse for injustice. But how many clear cases of this sort of injustice can any professor who has been teaching for twenty-five years recall? And how many cases of long-suffering on the part of presidents and trustees can he not recall? As erring mortals doomed to labor with and on other erring mortals, we professors have enough real evils to endure to warrant us in refusing to lend an ear to complaints of evils that are chiefly imaginary.

W. P. Trent.

New York.

WILLIAM JAMES.

In William James, America loses her one philosopher whose work is studied in France and China, in Finland and Australia, wherever men are seriously concerned about human nature and human destiny. What chiefly characterizes his thought is that rarest of all qualities, intellectual justice. He was utterly free from extremes, whether of aspiration or of argument. People have been used to call this quality a defect in logical power, and to accuse him of inconsistency, but, in truth, the inconsistency is not that of the thinker, but that of the world which he interpreted; the defect was not in his reasoning, but in the universe which he reasoned about. He could be subtle and dialectical enough when the occasion required it, as any reader of his latest book, "The Meaning of Truth," can testify. But he had a great dislike of dialectic and logic-chopping. He was a philosopher, not a professor of philosophy. What he cared for deeply and what was strongest in his own nature was the capacity for that direct, immediate intuition into the character of reality, which is the foundation for all dialectic and the criterion of all logical operations. This intuition, this justness of vision was so perfect in him that he could place himself, at a bound, at the very heart of even an opponent's thought, and see it with such a degree of sympathy as to hurt his own cause. He was always trying to save as much of the other man's values as he could. He set himself at the centre and drew all extremes in toward him. One of the many ways in which he indicated the nature of Pragmatism was to call it a mediator.

And a mediator Pragmatism is. It springs directly from that power of sympathetic comprehension and adequacy of intuition which were the whole nature of William James. Among philosophers who have found a place in the history of philosophy, there are hardly any, if we except Spinoza, whose philosophy and life were so absolutely at one. And that is perhaps the secret of the limpid, persuasive English, its arresting freshness, its thought-provoking power, which we have learned to know as the style of William James. In his case, the style was certainly the man, and the man the insight.

This insight is an insight into the basis and value of life. It apprehends experience as a flux and thought as a mediation. It is a mediation between the spirit and its environment, and for James himself had become, as Pragmatism, a mediation between fate and faith, between the march of things and the impulsion of ideas, between the will of nature and the will of man, between science and religion. There are two forces which impel men to philosophy. One is the inner impulse, the hopes and ideals of which the essence of human nature is woven. If operating without reference to the other, it creates a world in which all the values of our existence are conserved, but which does not describe the world in which mankind must and does seek its livelihood at the hazard of its life. This is the world envisaged in most religions and idealisms. They conserve values, but belie nature; they are optimistic and always have a problem of evil to face. The other force which impels men to philosophy is the shock from without, the massing upon life of the forces of nature which demand to be defined and understood if life is to maintain itself among them. This comprehension and definition is science. It envisages the environment without making it amenable to the ideal. It gets at nature by losing sight of human nature. In the case of idealism aspiration goes off into a limbo of its own without considering its conditions; in the case of naturalism, the flux sweeps on its irrevocable way unmindful of life or its interests. Each of these visions is inwardly coherent, logically consistent; neither is correct. The world is neither purely mechanical nor purely spiritual. It contains clashings of purposes and events, it contains purposes and events that harmonize. Ideals and ideas, William James insists again and again, must not be irrelevant to the conditions of their fulfilment, they are not aliens in a strange world, they have more than a squatter's claim in it. They, too, have a share in making it over and the existence of desire may be one of the conditions of the existence of its satisfaction; the will to believe may be one of the conditions for the coming of its object. Ideas and ideals also are factors in the universal struggle for survival. They, too, have a rôle to play in the flux, and they become valid and true only as they play that rôle fitly. But because they play a rôle, they must not be mistaken, as they are by idealisms and religions, for the sole protagonists in the

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cosmic drama. That "precipitousness," that certain menace and danger which we find in existence, springs from no ideal or spirit. There is a residual environment where God himself must battle for the good as he knows the good, an environment which is the condition of the good's existence and in which it must be sought. Ideas must be relevant if they are to work; relevancy, appropriateness, fitness, is the condition of all excellence. Reason itself is no more than the sentiment of this relevancy, this adequacy of articulation in the onrush of reality.

From this central vision springs every particular achievement of William James. The "functional viewpoint" in psychology, through which Professor Dewey and others have done so much, and which is to-day the most widespread among psychologists, originates in this vision, for it is from James's treatment of the concept that the "functional viewpoint" derives. And his treatment of the concept itself derives from the radical empiricism which envisages the intimate and interchangeable connections between ideas and things. This envisagement is still more evident in James's philosophy of religion. If divinity is to be known in its true nature at all, it must be known directly, in an immediate experience, which is only more mystical than the immediate experience of chairs and tables and men and the commoner aspects of nature, in the fact that it is rarer, not in the fact that it is different. The idea of God must be effective in an environment which has God for an object. To know him is to meet him under appropriate conditions face to face; to know him is as much an act of perception as to know any other fellow-being. For God is no more than a fellow-being, a very precious one, a conserver of our values who is engaged with us on our side in the struggle for life against the enmities that surround it, but still a fellow-being only, also enlisted in the great war for the good. And that supremest good, life itself, which discourse represents as the belief in immortality, that also must be sought and justified under appropriate conditions. Those conditions occur wherever the life after death seems to manifest itself, and they must be taken for what they are worth, tested to the limit for the validity, the fitness of the belief in immortality to survive. There is no more than this in William James's attitude toward psychical research. Sensation-mongers have made capital of the wide and just sympathy which ever led James to pursue the truth wherever it seemed to show its face. They have wronged him without reason, and sometimes with malice. Nowhere in his printed utterances on the subject of psychical research can be found anything more than just this readiness to test and examine, to consider and to weigh alternatives, just his righteous indignation at casting aside without a hearing whatever data are offered for the validation of a claim, the satisfaction of an interest, or the realization of an ideal. What moved him in all this was the love of man working through the spirit and with the methods of science. He insisted on giving human aspiration a fair trial.

Giving men and things a fair trial was the whole of William James's life. His sense of justice it was that made him an empiricist and libertarian in metaphysics and a meliorist in ethics. For him change was real, and nothing was so bad that it might not be improved. His own life was an expression of this conviction. For many years under the malignant influence of a grave and baffling disease, he carried out his appointed tasks with unflinching constancy and invincible will. He had, moreover, an extraordinary and infectious joyousness, a sort of youthful buoyancy, which seemed woven into the warp and woof of his philosophic vision as well as into the routine of his daily life. He touched nothing but to illuminate it; a subject in his hands soon began to sparkle and shine, to cast rays in infinite directions on infinite things. He always imparted to his pupils and hearers the feeling of the "something beyond," the "and" which trails after. He gave himself freely to all things; there was not a single humane cause in which he had not a part.

H. M. Kallen.

Cambridge, Mass.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

In some copies of the second edition of Burns's "Poems" (Edinburgh, 1787) there is a misprint, "stinking" for "skinking," in the line

Auld Scotland wants nae skinking ware,

in the last stanza of the poem "To a Haggis," while in other copies the word is correctly printed. The variation was discovered by some Burns student many years ago, and, on the principle generally true in bibliography that the issue with the misprint is earlier than the one in which the error has been corrected, the copies with "stinking" have generally been called first issue in catalogues, and have brought higher prices than those in which the error does not appear. Miss Henrietta C. Bartlett, who is preparing a catalogue of Beverly Chew's library, has, by a comparison of two copies, recently discovered that the types of the entire body of the book were twice set, and that the "stinking" issue is actually the second. No variation has been discovered in the preliminary leaves, the list of subscribers, or the glossary. The two issues were printed in the same printing office, with the same types, though there is one uniform point of difference. In the font of italic type used in printing the captions of many of the poems, in the first issue the upper-case T has a curved top, whereas in the second issue a straight-topped T is used.

The poem "To a Haggis" did not appear in the first edition (Kilmarnock, 1786), but other slight typographical differences seem to confirm the priority of the "skinking" edition. We need not take space here to give page and line, but the following examples may be given:

KILMARNOCK AND FIRST ISSUE OF EDINBURGH EDITION.	SECOND ISSUE OF EDINBURGH AND LATER EDITIONS.
o'	of
tho'	though
takes	taks
mysel	mysell
taen	ta'en

The first edition of Burns's "Poems" was printed at Kilmarnock by John Wilson in 1786. The edition consisted of 612 copies, for 350 of which subscriptions had been received before publication, and in less than one month 599 copies in all had been disposed of. This first edition, known as the "Kilmarnock Burns," is one of the most valuable books of its period, a trimmed copy being worth upwards of a thousand dollars, while a thousand pounds has been paid for one of the few copies which have survived in the original blue paper covers, edges untrimmed. On November 29, 1786, Burns set out for Edinburgh to arrange for printing a new edition. On December 7 he wrote to Gavin Hamilton:

For my own affairs I am in a fair way of becoming as eminent as Thomas à Kempis or John Bunyan, and you may expect henceforth to see my birthday inserted among the wonderful events, and in the Poor Robin's and Aberdeen Almanacks, along with Black Monday, and the battle of Bothwell Bridge. My Lord Glencairn and the Dean of Faculty, Mr. H. Erskine, have taken me under their wing, and by all probability I shall soon be the tenth worthy, and the eighth wise man of the world. Through my Lord's influence it is inserted in the records of the Caledonian Hunt, that they universally, one and all, subscribe for the second edition. My subscription bills come out to-morrow, and you shall have some of them next post.

On January 14, 1787, Burns had "to-day corrected my 152d page," and on March 22, 1787 he wrote as a postscript to a letter to Mrs. Dunlop:

I have to-day corrected the last proof sheet of my poems, and have now only the Glossary and subscribers' names to print. Printing this last is much against my will, but some of my friends whom I do not chuse to thwart, will have it so. I have both a second and third edition going on, as the second was begun with too small a number of copies. The whole I have printed is three thousand.

This interesting postscript (first printed in 1898 in the Burns-Dunlop correspondence, edited by William Wallace) shows the correctness of Miss Bartlett's independent discovery. It also shows why no variations could be discovered in the list of subscribers or glossary. These leaves evidently were set once only, and three thousand copies, sufficient for both editions of the text, were printed. When the book appeared on April 21, Burns had sold 2,800 copies. He cleared about £500 on the edition.

Later, in 1787, appeared the first London edition, called "Third edition" on the title, but, as we now know, more accurately the fourth. The next year, 1788, editions were printed in both Philadelphia and New York. Precedence has sometimes been given to one of these and sometimes to the other, as the first American edition, but

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contemporary advertisements show that the Philadelphia edition was actually the earlier. The following interesting advertisement appeared upon the cover of some Philadelphia magazine, probably the *Columbian Magazine*. The specimen seen was a clipping pasted in a copy of the book.

BURNS'S POEMS.

Philadelphia, 7th July, 1788.

Just published, and to be sold at Peter Stewart's printing-office, the west side of Second-Street, the ninth door above Chestnut-Street, and by most of the booksellers of this city:

(In one neat pocket volume, price only 6s. handsomely bound and lettered, although the Edinburgh copy sold for 6s. sterling in blue boards.)

Poems,
Chiefly in the Scottish dialect.
By Robert Burns, the celebrated Ayrshire ploughman.

the peculiar merit of this work is sufficiently evinced by the very numerous list of subscribers prefixed to the Edinburgh edition (there being not less than sixteen hundred) among whom appear many of the nobility and gentry of Scotland . . .

* * * It is hoped the very reduced price of this American edition will recommend it to the patronage of the public.

This shows that the book was bound and on sale early in July. The following advertisement, which appeared in the *New York Packet* for the issues of August 22 and September 2, 1788, shows that the New York edition could not have been ready until September, 1788:

Burns's Poems.

The publishers return their sincere thanks to those gentlemen who subscribed for this work some time ago, and assure them that the reason of it not appearing sooner was entirely owing to the extreme scarcity of printing paper; a supply of fine paper is now received and as the work is on the press they may rely on having their copies in a short time.

Correspondence.

OUR EDUCATIONAL AIMS, AND THE RHODES SCHOLARSHIPS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The interesting letter of Mr. Frank Aydelotte on the Rhodes scholarships (*Nation*, June 9) presents a number of points which will bear further comment. Permit me to direct attention to two of them.

Mr. Aydelotte says: "Our educational aims are definite and practical enough." That is true; and he might have added with equal truth, "and numerous enough; perhaps too numerous, and too practical." "Educational aims" are aims which may be made tributary to an aim of education, and parts of a unified system of education adapted to *the promotion of that aim; but they are also* aims which may not be so tributary, but may, instead, be pursued in a desultory fashion with little or no regard to the aim of education as a whole, or to any unified or logical system of education. In our case, unfortunately, they are mostly the latter. We are in the curious situation of having a vast and varied assortment of educational aims, but *no aim of education*. We are like the man in the forest who complained that he could not see the forest because there were so many trees in the way. Our scheme of education is lacking in perspective, in unity of purpose, and subordination of parts. But human nature is not entirely satisfied with this tyranny of "things in the saddle," and it sometimes asks what all this labor is for. For answer to this question, we have only a vague intimation that there is such a purpose somewhere in the far future; that the individual man is as it were a cog in one of the many wheels of a vast cosmical machine, which is supposed to be working to the accomplishment

> Of some far-off-divine event
> To which the whole creation moves,

of which he himself knows and can know nothing.

In striking contrast to this is the English system into contact with which the Rhodes bequest is designed to bring American students. That system has an aim of education; and it is one which gives a far different answer to the question, *cui bono?* Instead of making the individual man of the present a sacrificial victim to some far-off divine event in the supposed interests of some future collective superman, it asserts the infinite value of man individually and places him before man collectively; it assumes that the individual man is himself the event which should be the objective point of education—not far off or divine, but now and here and human; that the individual man of to-day is himself the measure and explanation of the world rather than that the world or some ultimate exterior purpose is the measure and explanation of him.

In comparison with this English idea of education, our own exhibits some striking and significant peculiarities. In the first place, it exalts doing above being, thereby reversing the relative positions of end and means, and turning the order of nature upside down. Naturally, all our doing is for the purpose of attaining some condition of being that appears more desirable than the present one. But in our logically absurd scheme of education the object of doing is merely to give occasion and opportunity for further doing. Another significant fact which appears from comparison of these two educational ideas is that the one is essentially Christian and the other pagan. In its exaltation of the individual soul, the English idea is essentially Christian; and, on the other hand, in its dethronement and relentless sacrifice of the individual to the mass, the American idea is essentially pagan—or, at least, irreligious. One of the most fundamental and essential features of Christianity is its postulate of the immortality, and, therefore, infinite value, of the individual human soul. To this postulate probably, more than to all else, Christianity owes its success in the conquest of the world. I will venture to say that a very large proportion of the educational ills from which we are now suffering are traceable directly or indirectly to the deliberate abandonment or careless disregard of this postulate. Whatever else may be thought of our determined secularization of education, certain it is that in so far as it involves the reflection or elimination of this postulate, it entails a heavy and irreparable loss. Some theory as to the nature and destiny of the soul that is to be educated there must be; and what theory other than this can there be that will make the higher education seem worth acquiring? It is a vital source of weakness in our secularized system that it ignores this necessity and makes no provision for this natural want.

In view of these characteristics of the two systems respectively, was Mr. Rhodes mistaken in supposing that the English system could be made of some serious benefit to ours? Mr. Aydelotte says that "the English system would not do as a substitute for ours." This is perfectly true. A system designed for the education on individualistic principles of a few thousand select people, certainly would never do for the education on quite different principles of the eighty millions of unselected people whom our system is designed to furnish with some degree of education. It is not a substitute that we want but an amendment—or, if you prefer, a supplement—something that will supply in our system what is needed to remedy its defects. For the defect already pointed out, does not the English system in the feature above described offer an obvious remedy? Is not that aim of education precisely what is needed to restore to equilibrium our now lop-sided system? I say "restore," for its adoption into our system would not be an innovation but a restoration merely. It would be simply restoring to our colleges an aim of education which our colleges once possessed, and relinquished only under pressure of a clamorous and insistent popular demand for educational aims of more immediate practical value—a demand which, it may be remarked, would never have been acceded to but for the fact that the colleges themselves were in a race for popularity.

That the concession thus made by the colleges was unnecessary is evident from the fact that the new demand for more immediately practical aims could and should have been met not by revolutionizing the colleges, but by providing new agencies. That the concession was a disastrous mistake can hardly be doubted by any one who has observed its effects upon scholarship as exhibited by the average college graduate of to-day in America. Let us continue to educate the masses for citizenship and for usefulness in special callings; but, having educated these for the usefulness of *doing*, let us not forget to educate such as we may for that other kind of usefulness no less important which pertains to the fulness of *being*, intellectual, moral, and spiritual; so that it can no longer be said of us that we have a great educational system that is capable of producing almost everything except well educated men and women.

Herbert L. Baker.

Detroit, Mich., August 30.

THE RECEPTION OF CHINESE STUDENTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Since I have been a student in Oberlin College, I have learned that the *Nation* is one of the most cosmopolitan journals in America, and since I have made several unsuccessful pleas to the immigration officials in Washington, in behalf of Chinese students in America, perhaps you will be kind enough to give me a hearing through your columns. While now a student in one of your colleges, I was formerly a teacher in Foochow College, and expect to return to my native country to disseminate the impressions I have gained while here. I am sorry to confess that my

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first impression as I reached America was unpleasant. In order that the students who enjoy the benefit of the kindness of the United States in returning the indemnity money may not at the moment of their arrival experience the same disagreeable sensation, in order that no germ of hatred may arise in the proud hearts of these young men coming here for training for important offices in the New China, I plead for more simplicity and less restraint in the forms through which they are required to go upon arrival. These forms detained me in San Francisco against my will for some thirty-six hours, and were it not for subsequent kindness shown me, I fear that I should have kept a while here, and later on carried back to China, hatred, instead of friendship and good feeling toward America. I know that some of my friends have been kept at San Francisco even longer than I was, but it is not necessary to mention their cases. I understand that those officials have reason to thus detain us; I am not intimating that they did not maintain the law of the United States. But I am pleading for a special arrangement to be made for the Chinese student-class, so that upon the presentation of their student passports with the signature and seal of both the American consul and the Chinese official, they will be allowed to go. It seems to me that America believes China can and will become a great nation. She returned to her some part of the so-called Boxer Indemnity and gave an invitation to the Chinese students to be educated in America. This favor is greatly appreciated by every intelligent Chinese, and the Chinese students are very eager to come, cherishing a hope that they will be greeted with a warm reception. It is worthy of notice that these students are going to fill the prominent places of the new Chinese Empire; if they have good impressions of the States, how much greater the friendship between the two countries will be created by them.

I love America and I love China; I should not like to see the friendship of these two nations thus injured, so I forget myself and boldly come forward in behalf of my fellow students. I should be very sorry if my plea was of no effect. With firm faith in American loyalty to international justice and to the interest of both governments, I look forward with great hope to a better condition in this matter. L. S.

Oberlin College, August 31.

A CHURCH WITHOUT CREED.

To the Editor of The Nation.

Sir: Lately I met an old friend who lives in a distant city, and our talk turned after a time to religious matters. He had formerly been a church member in good and regular standing.

"What church do you attend now?" I asked him.

"You would think it a queer one," he answered. "It has a wonderfully beautiful edifice, in the first place; large and spacious, with great seating capacity; and unlimited pains have been taken with the decoration. And the music is magnificent, and the incense and all."

"Incense!" I exclaimed.

"I told you you'd think it queer," he answered calmly. "Still, it is not Catholic, though no doubt there are Catholics who come to it. But our pastor is allowed to have things pretty much his own way, and no good thing is distasteful to him on account of prejudice."

"So you have joined those who attend church on account of the æsthetic delights of sound and color and odor connected with the service," I said.

"Most churches employ some of them," he replied, "to a limited extent, at least; perhaps often somewhat blindly. They have their legitimate office. They suggest the mystery and beauty of the universe; they lift the soul into an atmosphere where the deeper realities are felt to be real, and the transitory ceases to overwhelm."

"Go on," I prompted. "What denomination does your church belong to?"

"Virtually the only doctrines preached are love toward God and man."

"You have become a Unitarian. I used to be afraid you would."

"Not at all. I believe about as I always did. And the Unitarian doctrines are not preached in this church, any more than those of any other sect."

"Church union at last, then! Does it really work?"

"It isn't the official union of any church bodies. Every member of the congregation is simply expected to live in peace and good fellowship with his neighbor, believing what he thinks best and allowing his neighbor to do the same. We call it the Temple of Tolerance."

"But apparently it isn't even distinctively Christian."

"The Founder of Christianity called those the two greatest commandments: love for God and man."

"But it takes other doctrines to make a church really Christian."

"It seems to our pastor that the truly Christian way is to preach these and allow people to differ on other matters.

"For many people it would not seem like church with their favorite doctrines left out."

"Well, one other belief is assumed, at least: that in a future life, because most people believe it, and of those who don't, few or none object to it."

Something in my friend's tone had roused a vague suspicion in my mind.

"What is your preacher's name?" I questioned.

"Rev. Dr. Greenfield," he answered, and there was a twinkle in his eye that showed me I had been trapped. I ought to have been forewarned by experiences of former days.

"I know the old heretic!" I exclaimed. "He preaches no sermons at all. Or, at least, every one who goes to him hears something different. And some of his speeches have no suggestion of religion in them!"

My friend admitted that to be the weak point of the genial old gentleman.

"But the church and its doctrines are ideal," he still maintained. "And I hope in time we shall have ministers who will stick to the text, and a widespread organization that will take in the thousands of the strays and the discontented and carry on a great work. There is a great deal to be done that the present churches, on account of their sectarian character, are incapable of. One thing is the fight for moral education. We are the most criminal of the great nations, with no moral teaching in our public schools, such as other nations have, and with great educational institutions of crime in our jails and saloons. Sectarianism is to blame for some of this, and a non-sectarian church is best fitted to cope with it."

After this he presented me with the following sonnet, which I beg you will kindly print. The most solemn convictions are often better expressed by verse than prose, and it may be that I have not done my friend justice in the above report of his conversation, which, though lightly uttered, I found to be the expression of very earnest belief.

The forest's vaulted aisles, with faint light gleaming
Through leafy traceries, the hush, the choir,
The incense, breathe a kindly awe, inspire
Faith in a love behind this outward seeming.
And man's cathedrals too in sacred gloaming
And prayerful silence lift the soul with power;—
But in their vaults what ancient errors lower,
And through their dusk what bigot ghosts go roaming!
When will there be a temple, I have wondered,
Where all, in sect-forgetting adoration,
May worship, reverent and awed by beauty?
"Not thine it is to chain men's thought! Thy duty
Is love like God's toward Him and His creation."
Oh, for such creed to join what creeds have sundered!

R. Mowry Bell.

Princeton, N. J., August 24.

"GOOD AND" AND "MAKE GOOD."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some time ago a former student of mine sent me a pretty little story, clipped from a Brooklyn paper. The story tells how H——, a native, ordered of W——, a Greek restaurant keeper, an oyster sandwich "good and hot." The Greek looked upon the word "good" as implying that he might have oysters which were not good; plainly, an aspersion upon his restaurant. The dispute proceeded from words to blows, to the use of the knife, and arrest. *Se non è vero*, etc.

Has any one discussed the phrase "good and" as a mere intensive="very, thoroughly"? I do not find the phrase in the Oxford Dictionary. The nearest approach is at p. 290, A 19 b; here "good" (without "and," however) is illustrated as an intensive adverb in such expressions as "a good large province," "a good smart cut," "a good bold hand"; also "good pretty"= "pretty good." In the American Dialect Notes, II, p. 315, D. S. Crumb, in his paper on the Dialect of Southeastern Missouri, records the phrase "good and ready"= "fully ready." But "good and" is by no means confined to any one section of our country. Rather, it is common American, for I have been familiar with it all my life. Still, it is not slang, but mere conversational expression; I should refrain from using it in formal discourse, but should not hesitate in ordinary talk. At any rate, it seems American rather than British; I do not remember hearing it from an Englishman or meeting it in a book printed in England. My personal recollections, however, are not conclusive on such a point.

"Make good" is spreading rapidly in our speech, and perhaps also in our writing. Now a glance at the Oxford Dictionary, p. 290 A 22, will show that "to make

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good" in the sense of "to atone for," "to perform, carry out," etc., is no novelty. In all the Oxford Dictionary examples, however, "make good" is followed by a grammatical object; somebody makes something good, or valid. Whereas our American slang—for it is slang to my sense—uses the expression absolutely. Every day we hear the utterance: "He has made good," *i. e.*, "he has succeeded," he has done what was expected of him. In ten years, perhaps, our lexicographers will have to enter "make good" as a compound verb, like the German *guthaben gutachten*.

J. M. HART.

Ithaca, N. Y., August 15.

WHY NOT TYPEWRITE MANUSCRIPTS?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the letters of Messrs. Ford and Konkle in your issues of July 21 and August 11 respectively there is apparently assumed to be an alternative only between ink and pencil; in passing it may be remarked that some inks fade and that carbon copies may be made with the pencil. But why not use the typewriting machine now almost everywhere available? The investigator unable to manipulate it himself may employ an operator to transcribe directly from the manuscript or to write from dictation, in full or stenographically.

BURT G. WILDER.

Siasconset, Mass., August 14.

THE DERIVATION OF ALFALFA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent's ingenious explanation of alfalfa as a derivative of alfel-Fez (*Nation*, July 28) is an etymology, I take it, more fanciful than demonstrable. The identification suggested by Murray's may safely be followed. The letter *Koph* (pronounced as hard *k* in classical periods) has a tendency toward complete quiescence. We have such a phenomenon as the equivalence of James and Jakob, where the *k* is on its way to entire disappearance, being represented by the weak *m*; and there are any number of examples in the modern Arabic of Syria at any rate where the consonantal value of the *k* is no longer apparent; *e. g.*, Jerusalem is termed el-*K*uds (pronounced el-Uds).

A. MEYER.

San Francisco, August 20.

NOTES ON TEXT BOOKS.

PÆDAGOGICS AND ENGLISH.

A book which deals with social aspects of the subject is "Vocational Education," by John M. Gillette (American Book Company). The field of education considered is that of the elementary school. It is contended that economic activities constitute the line of achievement of organized society which should determine the method and content of education; that since the social environment is specialized into vocations, education must likewise be specialized; that the traditional curriculum and traditional methods of training do not meet present social demands, since they rest largely upon the theory of the value of a general discipline for all children; and that the criterion which should be applied in the reorganization of the school system is that of educating the individual to be able to adjust himself to the social situation he is most likely to meet in life. The author would apply this criterion to every programme, to every subject. In keeping ever in mind throughout his school training the purpose of preparing the child to take a more or less definite place in the economic environment, in despising the cultural and in largely overlooking the spiritual ideal in education, the author is frankly most radical. Many of his propositions involve us in serious difficulties, and evidently need much more careful consideration before they can be accepted. His enthusiasm has led him to make the vocational requirements of the modern world not merely of great importance in education, but supreme. The book shows a tendency of the times.

Students of education in this country are aware of the great advance that has been made in the public-school system of France during the past quarter of a century and especially within the past decade. Answers to the inquiries that are being more and more frequently made about the schools of that country may be found in the volume, entitled, "French Secondary Schools" (Longmans, Green & Co.), by Frederic E. Farrington, recently published, and in "The Public Primary School System of France," by the same author, and published some years ago. The present volume contains an account of the origin, development, and present organization of secondary education in France. Beginning with an historical sketch of the secondary schools from the first revival of learning to the present time, it takes up successively the administrative organization, the teaching force, the programme, the life of the school, the education of girls, and the various subjects of the curriculum. Each of these topics is admirably prefaced by an account of conditions as they have existed in successive periods down to the present era; followed by a comprehensive view of the actual workings of the lycées and colleges under the present system. The total result is a very clear and complete study of the state secondary schools. The author sets forth conditions as they appear from the American standpoint, but throughout he has played the part of the sympathetic critic, stating frequently the French point of view which has determined methods and courses. The American reader of the book will be very forcibly impressed by the fact of the extreme centralization of the administrative organization of the French school system, which contrasts so greatly with our own extreme decentralization. The ideal would seem to be somewhere between the two. In the attempt to solve some of the problems of school administration in this country there appears to be a tendency toward a greater degree of centralization. Its advantages and disadvantages, as applied in France at least, are suggested very vividly to the reader of this book.

An excellent thesaurus of English literature has been prepared by Prof. A. G. Newcomer of Leland Stanford University and Miss Alice E. Andrews of the Cleveland High School, St. Paul, under the title "Twelve Centuries of English Poetry and Prose" (Scott, Foresman & Co.). It begins with "Beowulf" and ends with R. L. Stevenson, finding space in its seven hundred double-column pages for such long works as "Everyman," "The Tempest," "The Rape of the Lock," and "Sohrab and Rustum." The notes are sufficient to make the work independent of reference books, and altogether the editors have made a useful and interesting volume.

Prof. W. C. Bronson's series of "English Poems" has been completed by a fourth volume, the "Old English and Middle English Periods," 450-1550 (University of Chicago Press). The more or less popular intention of the volume has induced the editor to present his selections from the Anglo-Saxon in the form of a prose translation, which gives a rather anomalous appearance to the first fifty pages of a book devoted to poetry. For the rest, the translation is of the usual un-English type affected by scholars for the reproduction of Old English. The Middle-English verse, on the other hand, is virtually untampered with and is reinforced by a vocabulary amply sufficient for reading purposes. The specimens are fairly representative; indeed, within these limits there is comparatively small room for choice, though the range is somewhat extended by examples of the early drama—miracle and morality, and John Heywood's "Foure PP." The volume is equipped with notes and brief bibliographies. Used in connection with the other members of the series, as an introduction to a survey of English poetry at large, the book ought to be a useful one.

"Speaking in Public," by Charles Seymour (Dutton), is a good example of the difficulties and dangers of rhetorical teaching in its more utilitarian forms. Mr. Seymour's aims are extremely businesslike—indeed, he seems to have had unusual success as an oratorical coach—and his volume bears the not unpromising sub-title, "How to Produce Ideas and How to Acquire Fluency." As so frequently happens, however, in this sort of attempt to draw the literary badger, the instruction offered is conspicuously verbal after all. If the pupil only acquires the trick of talking on unfalteringly with a thin unintermitting drizzle of language, he would seem to do about as much as can reasonably be required of him. Some of the exercises to this end are ingenious and illustrate amusingly the purely conventional significance attached to the word "idea" in modern methods of composition. So, for instance, the student is directed to stand beside his chair, and after describing the objects in the room to an imaginary audience, to "evolve a thought" instantaneously from each of them, as follows: "A pedestal writing-desk occupies a position in the room near the window; to the busy man this article is indispensable. It conduces to order and method and facilitates the dispatch of any kind of work in which pen or pencil is actively employed," and so on.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

Voltaire's "Zaïre," edited with introduction and notes by Prof. C. W. Cabeen of Syracuse University, has appeared in Heath's Modern Language Series. Apart from the relation of the play to "Othello," Voltaire's so-called tragedies have enough historical interest to warrant the inclusion of perhaps the best one of them in a comprehensive French text series. The editing is satisfactory.

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Sandeau's "Un Héritage," with introduction and notes by Pauline K. Leveson, is the latest addition to the Oxford Modern French Series (Clarendon Press). Simplicity of style and directness of narrative make the unpretentious story well adapted to the needs of beginners. The notes, while few, are adequate; type and paper are excellent.

Under the title of "Contes des marins de la Haute Bretagne," four of Sébillot's Breton fairy tales, with exercises on the text and vocabulary, have been added to the series of Crowell's Shorter French Texts. The easy, bright little stories are suitable for school use, and may be recommended for elementary college courses, in cases where the instructor needs a short book. There are thirty-two pages of text.

From the Cambridge University Press (Putnam) comes F. A. Kirkpatrick's edition of two of Cervantes's less familiar "Novelas Ejemplares," viz.: "La Illustre Fregona" and "El Licenciado Vidriera." In the treatment of the text the editor has shown good judgment. The notes are painstaking and interesting, while unusually voluminous. Altogether, the volume is a welcome addition to the not over-long list of well-edited Spanish texts.

"An Easy German Reader," by A. B. Nichols (Holt), is a modest collection of stories suitable for early reading, simplified, and accompanied by a Vocabulary in which particular attention is given to derivation and to cognates. The editorial work is intelligent and careful.

The American branch of the Oxford University Press has inaugurated a new series of text-books with editions of Annette von Droste-Hülshoff's "Judenbuche," by E. O. Eckelmann, and Lessing's "Minna von Barnhelm," by Josef Wiehr. Each is provided with an introduction, notes, and a vocabulary. The books present a good appearance and have been prepared with care. "Die Judenbuche" is the first of the author's stories to be edited in America. It does not belong to any *genre tranché:* one is tempted to describe it by a phrase that has been applied to one of Heine's ballads: "une succession de points lumineux sur un fond de pénombre." Dr. Eckelmann's introduction is sympathetic, his vocabulary is exhaustive; his Notes, though sufficient for the purpose, might have been more instructively formulated. Dr. Wiehr's "Minna" is similarly thorough. The introduction gives a good general account of the historical position and the ethical content of the play. The notes take up all important questions likely to arise in the reading of it. There are here, however, various polemics against interpretations and views not very likely to arise in the American class room, and the editor is frequently not as helpful as he might have been if he had more perfectly put himself in the position of his American reader. His use of the colon, for instance, is more German than English.

The attention given to Grillparzer's dramas in American colleges fully justifies the unusual scholarly research bestowed by Prof. Carl Edgar Eggert, on his edition of "König Ottokars Glück und Ende" (Holt). An introduction of fifty pages not only presents us with a critical analysis of what is now universally regarded as one of the most powerful and most admirably constructed dramas in German literature, but furnishes one of the best short biographical and literary surveys of the poet in the English language. If the addition of the "historical background" seems rather minute, and the space given to grammatical elucidations of the text somewhat scant, these are errors in the right direction, as college editions of literary masterpieces go. Notes intended for advanced students ought to be, as they are in this instance, devoted to less elementary things than rudiments of phraseology. Grillparzer's occasional Austriacisms always find in Professor Eggert a skilful interpreter. The proofreading throughout is admirably done, and the volume presents a most inviting appearance.

CLASSICS.

Dr. W. H. D. Rouse has shown what can be done by the advocates of the oral method in teaching in his elementary Greek reader, entitled, "A Greek Boy at Home" (London: Blackie). This is a story written in Greek, of which the material has been gathered from many sources from Homer down to the novelists. The syntax is normal Attic, while the vocabulary is very mixed—a fact for which the author takes full responsibility. The speaker is a Greek boy, who introduces himself, describes the farm and house where he lives, the garden, the trees, his school, including his studies, as arithmetic, with multiplication and division, his sports, his travels. He visits the acropolis, he takes a small voyage, during which an old sailor relates his experiences in the battle of Salamis, etc. The whole forms a narrative of 134 pages, couched in the simplest style and interesting even to an older student. It is impossible not to admire the skill of the author in preparing such an unusual book. At the outset the student is expected to read without a vocabulary. This is, however, provided in a special book for review purposes. The words are with few exceptions defined in Greek. Thus during all his study the student is using Greek. According to the method suggested at the beginning the teacher reads the text aloud, explaining it at first in English, later in simple Greek, then the boys read it aloud. Their comprehension is tested by questions and answers in Greek, by oral and written retellings of the story, and in various other ways.

"Cæsar's First Campaign, a Beginners' Latin Book," by W. A. Jenner and H. E. Wilson (Appleton), reminds one at first of the Bellum Helveticum, but the resemblance extends to little more than the selection of the campaign against the Helvetians as the reading matter, and its use from the beginning of the book instead of the customary sentences. The chief novelty is what the authors call a "development exercise." At the close of every lesson the substance of the next day's reading lesson is given in the form of simplified detached sentences. In this way the subsequent reading of the original seems almost like a review. This method has been already used in a slightly different form in other books. The vocabulary to be learned consists of 500 words used six times or more in Cæsar, although many other words occur in the selected text. Little attempt is made in the earlier part to stimulate oral teaching except in directions for oral drill in paradigms; but in the latter part numerous questions in Latin call for answers in Latin. English-Latin, as well as Latin-English sentences are given from the beginning as exercises for translation. In ten review lessons students are required to write out the Latin originals of numerous English derivatives, as well as to make other word lists. There is also an appendix of forms and a vocabulary. Compared with other beginners' books, this one shows evidences of practical experience and excellent knowledge.

"A Cæsar Composition Book," by H. F. Scott and C. H. Van Tuyl (Scott, Foresman), is intended to accompany the reading of the first two books of the Gallic War. One exercise of from eight to ten detached sentences illustrating two principles of syntax is attached to every chapter of these books, the vocabulary being that of the chapter itself or its predecessors. The exercises are, accordingly, not "based" in the old sense, but the book shows the same lack of system and improper emphasis which has been objected to so often in the older books. For example, the first five exercises illustrate the following principles: Predicate nominative, ablative of specification, ablative of accompaniment, dative with special verbs, dative of indirect object, accusative of duration of time, ablative of time, ablative of means, ablative with *utor*, etc., enclitic use of *cum*. Thus matters that belong together are treated separately, and common constructions not found in these books of Cæsar are omitted. The construction of *ut* with the perfect indicative is illustrated, but not *postquam*, while the second and third forms of the condition are treated, but not the first form. The rules of syntax are usually well stated at the beginning of every exercise, and the student is relieved of the necessity of using a grammar, a fact for which the authors assume much credit. The proof-reading is in the main good, but more attention should have been paid to vowel quantities. The English sentences are well prepared and really make sense. The teacher who believes in the theory will find the book serviceable.

Volume iii of the excellent Thornton Arabic Series is the "Elementary Arabic Second Reading-Book," edited by Reynold A. Nicholson, lecturer in Persian in the University of Cambridge (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons). The pieces are mostly taken from texts and manuscripts (not later than the eleventh century A. D.) that, as far as Dr. Nicholson knows, have not hitherto been edited by any European scholar; they are arranged in chronological order so as to illustrate the cultural history of the Arabs, are provided with grammatical and historical notes, and a glossary is added. The printing is good, and the notes, containing references to Wright's Grammar and the author's "Literary History of the Arabs," judicious. The little volume has a greater interest than that of a reading-book.

"Four Plays of Menander," edited by Prof. Edward Capps for Ginn's College Series, has come to us too late to be properly reviewed in this issue, and must be reserved for critical examination.

HISTORY AND SOCIOLOGY.

The distinguishing feature of S. E. Forman's "History of the United States for Schools" (Century Co.) is the relatively large amount of space given to

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the development of the West and to industrial and social progress. In both of these respects, the book marks an advance over most secondary school compends now on the market. In the treatment of older and more familiar topics, the author is not so successful, nor does his narrative always show acquaintance with recent studies. A text-book which still tells the Pocahontas story as though it were fact, albeit with a questioning footnote; or implies that Roger Williams left Massachusetts for religious reasons alone; or which goes astray as to the real, and exceedingly interesting, facts regarding the treatment of the tea in Charlestown; or asserts that the Administration of Justice Act, of 1774, provided that "British officers or soldiers accused of murder in Massachusetts should be taken to England for trial"; or confuses Lincoln's constitutional right to abolish slavery with his undoubted right to emancipate slaves as a war measure, must be followed with caution in other matters also. The numerous illustrations, though well chosen, vary much in excellence, but the maps are especially commendable.

Prof. Norman M. Trenholme's "Outline of English History" (Ginn & Co.) differs from the same author's "Syllabus for the History of Western Europe" chiefly in the omission of references to collateral reading, save to the relevant portions of Cheyney's "Short History of England" and "Readings in English History," with which it is primarily intended to be used. As the references in the European syllabus put elementary manuals and elaborate works together indiscriminately, and, in the case of the larger books, were often impossibly long, the omission of similar citations in the present instance is not a loss; but most teachers will regret that Professor Trenholme has not attacked the problem more carefully, or given some bibliographical help beyond the bare list of authors and titles at the beginning. The topical outline itself is, as a whole, well contrived, though many of the review topics and questions are elementary and mechanical. The distribution of space in so large a subject as English history is a difficult question, and in this case the author has very likely not felt himself entirely free. Teachers who desire to emphasize the modern period, as is increasingly demanded in public high schools, may well be appalled at the comprehensiveness of most of the topical groupings since 1689; but it is fair to say that the syllabus conforms to most text-books now in use in this respect.

The growing list of elementary text-books in sociology receives an addition in Prof. James Q. Dealey's "Sociology: Its Simpler Teachings and Applications" (Silver, Burdett & Co.). The theoretical portions of the book are, in the main, a popularized epitomé of the views of Lester H. Ward, and need, consequently, no further comment here than to say that the work of selection and presentation, or perhaps we should say, of translation into common speech, has been very well done. The "applications" include such fundamental topics as the development of the state, ideas of government and law, and family and class relations, besides a numerous array of current issues, such as education, labor, pauperism, crime, religion, and sex problems. In his cursory survey of these diverse subjects, Professor Dealey preserves both moderation and practicality, even to the extent of admitting that, on more than one point, sociological speculation must for the present suspend judgment. One cannot help feeling, however, that his emphasis upon the dynamic rather than the static aspects of society often turns the philosopher into a preacher, and makes the latter half of his book read more like a comprehensive plan of social reform than a scientific survey of existing or historical conditions. In the hands of a skilful teacher and a well-informed class, however, the book should prove useful, and the general reader will find it worth while.

The high character of the series of Selections and Documents in Economics (Ginn) is well maintained by G. S. Callender's "Selections from the Economic History of the United States, 1765-1860." The ordinary text-book in this field not infrequently disappoints the college teacher. Even such admirably arranged compends as Day's "History of Commerce" or Bogart's "Economic History of the United States" require constant effort on the instructor's part to diversify the placid flow of the text and to leaven the heaviness of statistical summaries. A selection of well-arranged excerpts from contemporary accounts of various phases of industrial history has a vividness which the systematic text upon economic development rarely attains. Needless to say, the present volume will admirably supplement a systematic course of lectures upon our economic life and progress. The brief expository essay which prefaces each chapter strikes the proper keynote, and attunes the ear for the chord which is struck in the selections following. There is much pregnant suggestion in several of the introductory studies. The previous revival of credit and of returning business health is credited with paving the way for the successful political experiment of Federal government after 1789. The causal relation between prosperity and the new frame of government has hitherto been inverted, or attributed without adequate evidence, to the political factor. Perhaps more dubious is Professor Callender's dismissal of the odium upon free manual labor as a *vera causa* of the retardation of the growth of wealth in our slave-holding States. To attribute the arrest of capital formation south of Mason and Dixon's line mainly to the social conditions which caused the slave-holders "to expend that wealth in maintaining a luxurious and expensive style of living, instead of saving and accumulating capital" (p. 741) is rather a heavy tax upon the scientific imagination. If criticism were to be made upon the choice of selections, a captious reviewer might point out some passages irrelevant on the score of general economic importance. Trollope's experience with our sleeping cars and our brass baggage checks is amusing, but hardly germane. Occasionally there is surplusage, as for example, in the four versions of the Pioneer and His Ways (pp. 597-609). The absence of an index is wholly inexcusable.

SCIENCE.

The University of Chicago Press has issued a text-book in "Second-Year Mathematics for Secondary Schools," by George W. Myers, assisted by others, which is notable as an attempt to alter the traditional method of teaching mathematics in preparatory schools. For some time, teachers of physics, engineering, and the other experimental sciences, have been objecting to the separation of the geometrical and analytical branches of mathematics. To them, a problem does not come as distinctly of the one type or the other, but as a combination of the two. The problem of a falling body, for example, requires the student to solve analytically the distance moved, and, at the same time, to plot geometrically its path. As usually taught, the student considers algebra and geometry as two distinct subjects, and so there has arisen an anomalous sort of study, called graphical algebra. The question at bottom is whether mathematics should be taught as an aid to experimental science or as a discipline in rigorous logic. The authors of the present series adopt the former idea. Thus their first book in mathematics is algebra, with associated arithmetic and geometry, and this second book may be styled geometry with associated algebra and trigonometry. How well the end has been attained and how practicable the method is, will have to be judged with care. There is no doubt that the clean-cut, logical sequence of the text-books on algebra, geometry, and trigonometry is largely missing; and the present book gives the impression of being somewhat messy. This may be a fault of the scheme itself or only a failure in this particular application. The present tendency to sacrifice purely educational or disciplinary methods to a training for special ends will probably force the teaching of mathematics toward what may be called the composite method. As examinations are now set by colleges, very few preparatory schools, without a concerted action, could adopt this text. Most of the pupils who will use the book, judging from the titles of the authors, are preparing for the University of Chicago, and that institution is probably ready to recognize the plan. Teachers generally should study the book and prepare themselves for the change of method of presenting mathematics which seems likely to be tried in the near future.

The "Introduction to the Study of Biology," by J. W. Kirkaldy and I. M. Drummond (Clarendon Press), presents clearly and pleasantly the general facts needed by the beginner in the subject, mainly according to the syllabus of the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examinations Board, but with some additions. Noteworthy is the relative neglect of the frog, on the ground of its too marked specialization. On the other hand, there is a more extended account of the dogfish and of the rabbit, the last being used also as the basis of an account of the physiology of the vertebrates, the treatment of which has many gaps and is altogether not quite satisfactory. The book contains no laboratory directions and few indications of the ways by which the facts presented may be demonstrated or verified by personal study or experiment.

As an example of the modern trend in biological text-books, Thomas Walton Galloway's "Elementary Zoölogy" (P. Blakiston's Son & Co.) is unexcelled. The subject is presented from an economic standpoint rather than in a purely scientific manner, actual field observation and experience being held by the author as of far greater value to the ordinary high-school student

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than "book interest and laboratory interest." Nearly one-half of the work is devoted to the discussion of the fundamental problems on which the science is based, strong emphasis being laid on the importance of the individual investigation of each student. The various phylla, from protozoa to mammalia, are then briefly taken up, with commendable avoidance of dry technicalities (which may come later), and much stress on such interesting phases as Relations to Man and Economic Value. Several chapters on Evolution, etc., round out the work. The illustrations are in general good, and well reproduced. If all high school text-books were written in as simple and straightforward a manner, the student might find his course at least less irksome.

Of elementary manuals of botany there is no end. The number is so great as to be positively embarrassing to the inexperienced teacher who is called upon to make a selection. Fortunately, the difficulty is lessened by Professor Ganong's book, "The Teaching Botanist" (Macmillan), which has undergone careful revision in its second edition. It may be recommended confidently to teachers as indicating safe lines along which one can proceed at this transitional period in the history of botany. Two of the great divisions of botany are now passing through rapid and radical changes, of which no one can as yet see the end. These departments are plant-physiology, which is being revolutionized by the new ideas in chemistry and physics, and morphology, which is being reinvestigated in the light of fossil botany. But, although these great fields are in a state of constant change, there is enough solid ground to be found in each field, upon which the conservative teacher can safely advise his pupils to build.

That reform of logic which many thinkers here and abroad deem the most urgent of all philosophical duties, is furthered on the psychological side by Prof. W. B. Pillsbury's volume on "The Psychology of Reasoning" (Appleton & Co.). The writer attempts to pass beyond the narrow and, in his opinion, misleading paths of formal logic toward an analysis of the thought processes which shall reckon not only with the mere intentions of the individual thinker, but no less with everything unsuspected that really happens to be involved in the production and directing of his thoughts. Professor Pillsbury is no less opposed to the so-called logic of values which has lately raised its standard in this country, notably in the writings of Baldwin and Urban. His hypothesis centres in a general doctrine as to the nature of consciousness, a doctrine which strongly suggests, though it does not follow out, Woodbridge's in its fundamental point. For Professor Pillsbury, reasoning can be understood only in the light of the fact that to be conscious or in consciousness and to possess meaning are identical conditions. While his development of this interpretation is abstruse and fraught with not a few uncertainties, it is, on the whole, an admirable endeavor to harmonize conflicting masses of fact. Probably his curt dismissal of the formal logician as one who is concerned only with language, not with living thinking, merits the least praise. And his too easy denial of the importance of the ancient issue between idealism and realism ought to bring down trouble upon him.

Since William James's "Principles of Psychology" we have been looking vainly for an introductory treatise which sets forth facts and theories about mental life in the perfect style of an essay, with the first-hand vividness of a human document, and yet true to the scientist's conscience. Any one of these virtues is common enough, and pairs of them are not rare; but we believe that Prof. Mary Whiton Calkins's "A First Book in Psychology," fresh from the Macmillan Press, finds but one peer, and that one, though of perennial interest and worth, already antiquated in parts. Miss Calkins's book marks a long advance beyond her earlier "Introduction to Psychology." In that work she treated psychology "in a two-fold fashion, both as a science of selves and as a science of ideas (or mental processes), discussing all forms of consciousness from both points of view." Indicative of the trend of latter-day psychology is the author's complete abandonment of the second treatment, "I question," she now says, "the significance and the adequacy, and deprecate the abstractness of the science thus conceived." The wholesome effects of this reform are visible in every chapter, and they are heightened by excellent pedagogical sense, and not a little art. Miss Calkins orders her topics admirably. She winnows the abstruse and the problematic out from the mass of simple certainties and settles them, together with physiological excerpts and a rich store of bibliographical notes, in an appendix. The beginner thus encounters only a sketch of the main currents of psychic activity, and he finds it rich with historical allusion, literary glimpses, and personal confessions.

Literature.

JOHN STUART MILL.

The Letters of John Stuart Mill. Edited, with an introduction, by Hugh S. R. Elliot. With a note on Mill's private life, by Mary Taylor. With portraits. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. 2 vols., $6.50 net.

These letters, which fill two stout volumes, have lain so long unpublished that they come to us now like a voice from the distant and half-forgotten past. There seems to have been no reason why they should not have been given to the world sooner—for Mill himself meant some at least to be published—except the caprice of his stepdaughter, Miss Helen Taylor, a lady at one time well known in England, who had strong views on many things. When she died three years ago, her niece, Miss Mary Taylor, to whom they passed, concluded that they ought to be published; so now we have them, nearly forty years after Mill's death. The large majority are printed from the original drafts which Mill himself made, and from which, much corrected by erasures and additions, he copied out in his own hand the letters he sent to his correspondents, a conscientiously careful habit few would imitate to-day. Some, however, being those to Thomas Carlyle and (Lytton) Bulwer, are printed from copies of those sent to these persons, while those to John Sterling, which are among the most interesting, are printed from the originals, which Sterling's family seem to have returned. The correspondence covers a period of forty-four years, from 1829, when Mill was twenty-three years of age, till his death in 1873.

The interest of the letters is threefold. They tell us much about Mill's own character, including a good deal which we had learnt neither from his autobiography, frank and simple as that is, nor from the various sketches and studies of him which have appeared since his death. They throw some light on a few of the other leading literary figures of his time, and especially on those to whom the letters were written. And they give a vivid and direct impression of the public questions that were then occupying the public mind in England, and especially of the views held about those questions by the Philosophical Radicals of that day, of whom Mill was the intellectual head, while Sir William Molesworth and to some extent George Grote (the historian of Greece) and Dr. Bowring were prominent champions in the British Parliament. On each of these topics a few words may be said to indicate the value of the book.

There is little in it to affect substantially the judgment which the world has long since formed of Mill's intellectual power. Everywhere we discover the same vigor of thought, the same anxiety to get down to underlying principles, and the same power of close reasoning, which appear in his "Logic" and his "Political Economy." We are, however, struck, more than in those works, by a certain want of what may be called broad common sense in dealing with current questions. Mill, although an experienced official, writes too much like a man of the study—one can hardly say "of the cloister"—and shows himself inclined to carry out his principles with an insufficient regard to the conditions of time and place under which principles have to be applied. It used to be said of him that he lacked humor, that is, that he took everything too seriously, and did not understand, or at least did not allow for, the weaknesses of the average man. Certainly in these letters one discovers a good deal of that failure to see things as they are which was apparent to some slight extent in his book on Liberty, admirable in many ways as the book was, and much more apparent in his "Subjection of Women," parts of which were almost ludicrous in their inappropriateness to the facts of actual English society. If in this power of perceiving things just as they are Mill did not grow with years, he

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certainly did become more tolerant and lenient in his judgments of others. The sternness of youth so evident in the earlier of these letters seldom recurs in the later ones, when experience had brought, as it ought to bring, charity in its train. Of his conscientious candor and uprightness we receive the same clear impression which his books give, and which was no less strongly given by his public life. His motives were always high and pure, his sense of duty almost too scrupulous. The way in which he carried it into small things is shown by the pains he took in answering, often at great length and with great care, letters from people who had no claim upon him. There are, also, evidences of a warmth of heart and capacity for affection which are all the more attractive when found in a man so grave and rigid. These come out most in his letters to John Sterling, who must have possessed—Carlyle's "Life of Sterling" and the foundation of the Sterling Club show it—a power of inspiring affection equalled only by that which belonged to Arthur Hallam. A letter of 1840 (vol. I, p. 116) and those of 1844 (vol. II, pp. 127-127) are especially remarkable, and indeed beautiful and touching in their depth of feeling.

The personal interest is naturally greater in these letters of Mill's earlier years to his friends than in the deliverances on philosophical questions or public affairs which fill the second volume. But there are plenty of remarks scattered over all of them which are worth noting. Among these some of the reflections on religion are not the least interesting. He grew up, as readers of his Autobiography will remember, knowing nothing of Christianity, which his highly dogmatic father, dogmatic in anti-dogmatism, had so completely abandoned as to think not worth giving to the boy even as a matter of history. In 1833 he writes to Thomas Carlyle (vol. I, p. 68) that "I have been reading the New Testament; properly I can never be said to have *read* it before. I am the fitter to read it now; perhaps there is nobody within the four seas so utterly unprejudiced on the subject. I have never believed Christianity as a religion, consequently have no habitual associations of reverence, nor on the other hand any of *contempt*, like so many who have become sceptics after having been taught to believe; nor have I, like so many, been bored or disgusted with it in my youth. As far as I know your impressions about Christ, *mine* from this reading are exactly the same." He then proceeds to reflections upon the four Gospels, and in a later letter upon St. Paul, whom he is far from appreciating, and, we may perhaps say, did not really understand, reflections too long for quotation, but curiously representing the attitude of the less intolerant members of his school eighty years ago. It seems odd to find him and Carlyle in complete agreement on any subject, but this correspondence shows them as very close together, Mill appreciating Carlyle heartily, and being much influenced by him. Whether Carlyle was equally appreciative of Mill may be doubted. In later years he was wont to disparage his old friend, as indeed he had unluckily formed the habit of disparaging most people. Yet some American visitor, describing an interview with Carlyle near the end of his life, relates that after pouring boundless scorn on Herbert Spencer and some little upon Mill, he paused and added in a changed tone: "Aye; but he was a good man, was John Mill."

There is also an interesting letter (Vol. I, pp. 238-242), to an unnamed lady on a book which she had sent for his judgment in which he states that curious form of Manichaeism which had commended itself to him as perhaps on the whole the most probable theory of the government of the universe, a theory set forth in the little volume of essays on religion which appeared after Mill's death. Few have expressed their agreement with him, but not many men in England or America of eminence have dealt with these questions in the same kind of way, and in a spirit at once philosophical and scientific, since Mill's volume of essays appeared. Before leaving the relations of Mill with Carlyle, we must not forget to notice the letter (vol. I, p. 100) in which Mill, with the greatest delicacy and good taste, offers to make pecuniary compensation for the destruction of the manuscripts of the first volume of Carlyle's "French Revolution," which had been accidentally burnt while in Mill's custody, and that in which, when Carlyle (apparently a little to his surprise but much to his delight) had accepted some compensation, he expresses his appreciation of the acceptance. This was in March, 1835, and thereafter there would seem to have been no further correspondence between the two. Anyhow, none is given here.

To some of Mill's other contemporaries, we find references which are not without interest. There are several to Auguste Comte, several to F. D. Maurice, all warmly appreciative. Mill corresponded with Bulwer, and expresses an admiration for some of the latter's works which curiously contrasts with the hits at Bulwer which are frequent in Thackeray's early writings and not absent from Carlyle's. For Macaulay he had no greater liking than Carlyle had, and writes (to Bulwer) as follows:

> I felt your article [one on Sir Thomas Browne in the *Edinburgh Review*] to be far too good for Macaulay. It has much of the same brilliancy, but not his affected and antithetical style, and above all, a perception of Truth, which he never seems to have, and a genuine love of the True and the Beautiful, the absence of which in him is the reason why among his thousands of clever things and brilliant things there are so few true things, and hardly one which is the whole truth and nothing but the truth. (Vol. I, p. 103.)

Nevertheless Mill had the candor to admit some merit in Macaulay's "Lays of Ancient Rome," of which he says:

> They are better than I thought Macaulay capable of. He has it not in him to be a great poet. There is no real genius in the thing, no revelation from the depths either of thought or of feeling, but that being allowed for, there is real *verve*, and much more of the simplicity of ballad poetry than one would at all expect. The latter part of the "Battle of the Lake Regillus" and the whole of "Virginia" seem to me admirable. (Vol. I, p. 123.)

The interest of the second volume, which covers the years from 1863 till 1873, the year of Mill's death, is largely political, and not the least interesting letters are those which refer to the war of secession. There is a remarkable one to Mr. E. L. Godkin (vol. II, p. 35), full of warm praise of an article in the *North American Review* in which Mr. Godkin had vindicated American democracy. In this letter Mill frankly admits that he and Tocqueville had erred in their unfavorable judgment of at least one side of American political life.

> You have fully made out that the peculiar character of society in the Western States, the neutral type formed by the position and habits of the pioneers, is, at least in part, accountable for many American phenomena which have been ascribed to democracy. This is a most consoling belief, since it refers the unfavorable side of American social existence, which you set forth with a candor which ought to shame the detractors of American literature and thought, to causes naturally declining, rather than to one which tends to increase. . . . If Tocqueville had lived to know what the New England States have become thirty years after he saw them, he would, I think, have acknowledged that much of the unfavorable parts of his anticipations had not been realized. Democracy has been no leveler there as to intellect and education, in respect for true personal superiority. Nor has it stereotyped a particular cast of thought, as is proved by so many really original writers, yourself being one.

How strongly Mill was with the North in the war every one knows. He wrote to Dr. Whewell, Master of Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1865:

> I have felt strongly drawn to you by what I have heard of your sentiments respecting the American struggle, now drawing to a close between freedom and slavery, and between legal government and rebellion without justification. No question of our time has been such a touchstone of men, has so tested their sterling qualities of mind and heart, as this one, and I shall all my life feel united by a sort of spe-

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cial tie with those, whether personally known to me or not, who have been faithful when so many were faithless. (Vol. II, pp. 37, 38.)

There are, of course, many opinions expressed by Mill in these letters which few will now agree with, and some predictions which the progress of events has falsified. Now and then he could throw out dicta which were extravagant even when written, such as the following:

The characteristics of Germany is knowledge without thought; of France, thought without knowledge; of England, neither knowledge nor thought. The Germans indeed attempt thought; but their thought is worse than none. The English, with rare exceptions, never attempt it. The French are so familiar with it that those who cannot think at all throw the results of their not thinking into the forms of thought (From Mill's private Diary, Vol. II, p. 377.)

This is what comes of attempts to generalize epigrammatically! But there is also a wealth of thought diffused through the volumes, both on economics, on philosophy, on education, and on the political issues of the day, and one finds proofs on almost every page of the high and earnest spirit in which Mill devoted himself to all his work, private and literary, as well as public. His short career in the British House of Commons, while it did not enhance his reputation for practical statesmanship, set a brilliant example of public spirit and an absolute devotion to truth and duty. How ready he was to incur unpopularity and misrepresentation for the sake of a good cause comes out very clearly in the letters referring to the case of Gov. Eyre of Jamaica (vol. II, pp. 68, etc.). Mill was perhaps the finest specimen in recent times of what utilitarian ethics can do in the way of forming a noble character, unless we place beside his the character of another philosophical writer, the late Prof. Henry Sidgwick of Cambridge, England.

CURRENT FICTION.

"Now!" By Charles Marriott. New York: John Lane Co.

The gospel of the spontaneous and, save to one's wishful self, irresponsible life is a good deal upon the mind of the clever English novelist of the hour. At first glance, Mr. Marriot would seem to be exhibiting here, in his "Morrisonians," a whole fraternity of Simple Septimuses and John Senhouses, with females after their kind. Not that we impute conscious imitation: it is the season for that sort of crop. Moreover, this patch of Mr. Marriott's has its particular merits. His band of single-hearted philosophers are committed to no set form of individualism or socialism. There are but two things they must not do—vote, and invest money; but their general working rule is a negative one—to refrain from inessentials for the sake of essentials. Each member is to do what he likes, without "ulterior motive"—for the sake of a natural joy in living. "People are always imagining," complains the member in whose name the story is told, "that we are growing turnips, or making boots, or building houses, or cooking dinner, or painting pictures, to 'prove something.' It is the hardest thing in the world to persuade people that you are doing this, or living that way, because you like it." The saving thing about Morrisonism is that it is based upon a profound faith in human nature. "Doing what you like, when you come to consider what you are—I don't mean yesterday, but now—implies considerably more than taking your 'license in the field of time.'" The Morrisonians, in short, seek happiness by being good according to their own lights—or the thing may be put the other way round.

This wholesome and not revolutionary doctrine is enforced with much keenness and humor in connection with the experiences of a group of English people—or rather two groups which impinge but cannot unite, unless as Capulet may unite with Montagu. The story is told by an urbane gentleman who is something in chemistry, and a great deal out of it. At the outset he is connected with neither group, and it is by mere chance that he presently becomes involved with them both—the Kenwyn-Browns and the Morrisonians. The Kenwyn-Browns are, in subtler guise, the British middle-class family without which the current English novel would hardly know where to look for its humorous setting. There is the pompous pater familias, the complacent mater, the smug commercial son, the schoolboy and the schoolgirl. And there is the swan among ducklings, the new-fashioned daughter, just grown up and of independent mind. But the whole picture is mellowed and humanized. Kenwyn-Brown senior is not a fool or a tyrant, but a good soul hiding its uncertainties under the mask of convention and platitude. No such banalities pass between him and Julia as between Ann Veronica (of recent memory) and her absurd parent. It had not occurred to Mr. Marriott to hold a brief against fathers or for daughters: what he is for is freedom of all human beings to live and let live. The Morrison group is sketched with a light but sure hand—an association of the pure in heart if not of the meek in spirit. Conrad Lowe and his Julia are figures altogether delightful.

Happy Island. By Jennette Lee. New York: The Century Co.

Mrs. Lee's Uncle William and the island of his peaceful choice were no doubt too good romantic material to be exhausted in a single sketch. That their reappearance in this book does not seem trumped up is a proof of their genuineness. With the hard and unlovely aspects of Yankee life and character we are all sadly familiar; they are present here in the figures of Andy and his Harriet. But there are other aspects, mellower types. Uncle William's kindly and unforced optimism, the breadth of a nature little hampered by apparently narrow conditions, are not mere figments of Mrs. Lee's imagination. Insularity is comparatively seldom a matter of geography. The travelled and cultivated "Benjy" of this tale has much to learn from the quiet philosophy of his old stay-at-home comrade.

"I've thought about it, Benjy, a good many times—'bout living here on the island. We don't hurry much, but seems to me we get about as much—about as much living as other folks do." He looked at him over his glasses. "We've got enough to eat, and beds—putty *good* beds—and things to wear. I keep a'thinking and a-thinking about it," he went on, "and I don't see just what 't is we o't to scratch around so for."

"There's education," said the other, swinging his long glasses on their slender chain.

"Yes, you've got eddication, Benjy. I can see it—kind o' the way you set in a chair—different from my way." Uncle William regarded his great legs with kindly eye. "But I do' 'no's you're any happier—or your legs any happier?" he said slowly.

The argument is not precisely conclusive—Benjy ought to be happier, because he has more things to enjoy. Uncle William is an old bachelor, and ought at least to regret his childlessness; but he has no room for regrets in his philosophy. "Sometimes," he confesses, "I wake up in the night and think how happy I be—seems kind of shiftless." He is sufficient unto himself—asks for nothing better than his little gray house, his rocky acres, and the neighbors with whom chance or the Lord have supplied him. The charm of the sketch lies in his intermittent bits of monologue—spread rather thick, here and there, with the syrup of sentiment, yet not untrue to a real type.

The Golden Centipede. By Louise Gerard. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

It must be a bequest from the troglodyte ancestor who lurks concealed among the roots of every family tree, which makes tales of wild adventure and profuse carnage so acceptable to ostensibly civilized man. There is some element in the human composition that likes to read of a good gory fight, against amazing odds, even when the insidious refinements of modernity have made the reader unable to extract a thorn from a finger without qualms. Rider Haggard played long and dexterously upon that string and is still busy

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at it, though of late his chords have grown somewhat thin; and this promising disciple of his school gives us in "The Golden Centipede" a story that compares not unfavorably in every respect except originality, with "The People of the Mist," and "The Heart of the World." There is a heroine with all the charm of woman and all the daring of man, priestess of a painfully carnivorous god in Darkest Africa; there is a faithful foster-brother, Krua—we had almost said Umslopogaas, the likeness between them is so great; add to these a diabolical witch-doctor, a brace of highly-colored villains, a buried treasure, a hidden pool, a death-haunted temple, and a hero almost supernaturally astute and courageous, who wades through seas of blood to reach and rescue his beloved, and the net result is a very entertaining if somewhat reminiscent tale.

Honesty's Garden. By Paul Creswick. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The features of this charming little romance of Surrey and London bear a a family likeness to sundry predecessors. "The Professor's Love Story" haunts the memory as one reads, and so does a procession of pleasing ancestral books in whose pages we have known fairy old bachelors, collectors of old books and old china; pretty garden girls all in a row; scheming aunts, gay cousins, flinty publishers, London lodging-house keepers, pig-tailed, ferret-brained little cockney girls, always hanging out the milk-can. A reduced member of the tribe of De Morgan, it has the De Morgan lovable quality, a sweet genuineness which wards off egotism although told in autobiography. And with this pedigree as background, it wears traits of its own, original, but in harmony. Seekers for the "strong" need not apply. Those who can still enjoy the genially, tenderly humorous will do very well with this refreshing little book.

FOR ANTIQUARIANS.

Accidents of an Antiquary's Life. By D. G. Hogarth. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2.50 net.

Mr. Hogarth, who is best known as an investigator of Minoan and Ionian civlization, modestly writes himself down as an antiquary made, not born. He began nearly twenty-five years ago, in Asia Minor, under Ramsay, who taught him not merely the routine procedure of epigraphy and exploration, but also an uncommon thrift. Mr. Hogarth writes: "It is not the least of my many debts to Ramsay that I gained in my first tour of exploration the will and the capacity to go farther at less cost than perhaps any one but my master." Western Asia has remained Mr. Hogarth's favorite field. He has searched in Lydia, Lycia, and Phrygia, and as far as the mounds of the Euphrates. Perhaps his most important charge was the Ephesian excavations made for the British Museum, an engineering work of uncommon difficulty. The secret of thorough and delicate excavation, he repeats on many occasions, is to enlist the enthusiasm and intelligence of the diggers. With dull or discontented hands nothing but harm is done. Tours in Cyprus, Konia, and Cilicia, with desultory work in Egypt under Petrie, completed a prolonged apprenticeship. In the desert of Fayum our author had the fortune to find traces of Greek papyri, a discovery that has since born unexpected fruit.

It was a casual job of war correspondence in Crete that brought our antiquary to the site where his most notable successes were made. He looked at the lettered stones of Cnossus and resisted the temptation to make an unsatisfactory survey. Three years later, in 1900, he was seeking for the Cretan cavern of Dicte, where legend sets the birthplace of Zeus. Near Psychrò was found a splendid stalactite cavern. In its pool and in dried pockets numerous votive objects were discovered. Soon the find seemed exhausted:

> But chance had reserved her crowning grace. A zealous groper, wishful to put both hands to his work, happened to wedge his guttering candle in the fluting of a stalactite column, and by its light espied in the slit the green edge of a bronze blade. I passed the word to leave mudlarking in the pool and search the colonnades. Men and girls dispersed themselves along the dark aisles, and perching above the black waters on natural crockets of the pillars, peered into the flutings. They found at once—found blades, pins, tweezers, brooches, and here and there a votive axe, and in some niches as many as ten votive things together. Most were picked out easily enough by the slim fingers of the girls; but to possess ourselves of others which the lights revealed, it was necessary to smash stalactite lips that had almost closed in long ages. For about four hours we discovered at least an object a minute, chiefly on the columns at the head of the pool; but above the stature of a man nothing was anywhere found.

The passage illustrates both the fascination of such a quest and the ease of Mr. Hogarth's literary manner.

A cruise along the Satalian Gulf, with a visit to the magnificent theatre of Aspendius, a description of touring the desolate Nile fens where the oddest fish discovered were cosmopolitan hosts of Tarascon flavor, a hurried survey of Cyrene, a discussion of the joys and sorrows of digging, and a description of the Sajur, in the Euphrates valley, complete the contents of a charming book. Mr. Hogarth writes with zest and discretion; is good reading for anybody. Cuts from photographs are a welcome feature of the work. They help one to visualize the exceptional hazards of archæological research, its objectives, and its routine. Archæologists will read with especial interest the report on Cyrene. The dreaded Senussi sect that control this famous site turn out on acquaintance to be mild and industrious reformers. To the excavation of this city, which has barely felt the spade, there seem to be no unusual obstacles except that of purchasing some agricultural land. In fact, the legend of a forbidden city seems to have had little foundation. It is to be hoped that the certain riches of this site may soon be brought to light.

Colonial Mobile. By Peter J. Hamilton. Illustrated. Revised and enlarged edition. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $3.50 net.

The character of the enlargement which Mr. Hamilton has given to his book may be indicated by quoting the sub-title: "An Historical Study, Largely from Original Sources, of the Alabama-Tombigbee Basin, and the Old Southwest, from the Discovery of the Spiritu Sancto in 1519 until the Demolition of Fort Charlotte in 1821." He has made the volume more of a history and less of an antiquarian monograph. Not, however, that it did not have distinct historical value as it first appeared, thirteen years ago. It did have that value, for it was, on the whole, decidedly the most thorough and scholarly account of the beginnings of the old Southwest to be had in any form. It still remains the best single work on that general theme. Its coming so soon to a second edition is a deserved tribute to exceptional industry in a kind of historical research which certainly does not win, as a rule, any clamorous acceptance.

Of the eleven chapters which are either new or entirely re-written, all deal with the larger aspects of the subject: that is to say, with the Old Southwest, rather than with the town of Mobile. They seem also to indicate a conscious purpose of the author to extend his horizon, to embrace wider areas in his view, and to be more mindful, and keep his readers more mindful, of really epochal movements of population and changes of civilization: in a word, to do for the Southwest something of what Parkman did for the Northwest. Mr. Hamilton has, unfortunately, none of Parkman's literary equipment for such a task. He is unimaginative; his style is pedestrian, even halting; he is not even an easy writer. Yet he measurably succeeds. His devotion to his theme, the evident accuracy and candor of his work, and the intrinsic interest of the theme itself do take fairly strong hold of a reader at all historically minded. One reason why the theme is so interesting is that even educated Americans will find here so much of which they know

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nothing. Events which, if they had happened on our Atlantic Coast, or in Canada, would doubtless have been familiar to us all—events stirring in character and important in their results—have somehow, since they happened on the coast of the Gulf of Mexico, remained obscure. The names of men, who, had they lived and fought and founded and builded in New England or New York, or Virginia, or the Carolinas, would probably have been as well known to us as John Winthrop or Peter Stuyvesant or Nathaniel Bacon are somehow, because they belong, instead, to Louisiana or the Bigbee country, or West Florida, hardly known at all. Such, particularly, are the names of the early French explorers, headed by those of Iberville and Bienville—names that stand for careers as heroic and as picturesque as any to be found in all our colonial annals. Mr. Hamilton's later chapters have at least equal interest; for they present carefully and with much illuminating detail the beginnings of that peculiar civilization—the civilization of the Lower South—which one must comprehend if one is to understand the course of our national history up to the civil war and Reconstruction.

Recreations of a Sportsman on the Pacific Coast. By Charles Frederick Holder, author of "Life in the Open," "The Log of a Sea Angler," etc. With 74 illustrations. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2 net.

Any reader at all interested in the life of the sportsman is sure to find something fresh and interesting in a new book by Mr. Holder, who counts that day of sport lost, apparently, whose setting sun has not seen at least some attempt to do what no one else has even thought possible. In a former volume he defined his personal ideal of sportsmanship as that in which "the human animal divests himself of nearly all the advantages which nature has given him and enters the lists with the chances on the side of the lower animal." And when one finds him on the Florida reefs diving to the bottom and attempting with bare hands to bring a big sea turtle to the surface and hold it there, one must admit that he is willing to submit to the rigorous demands of his ideal. The present volume, however, presents nothing quite so unusual in its strenuosity as that. Of the twenty-five chapters rather an unusual proportion, for Mr. Holder, is given to trout angling, though the streams chosen are of the Rocky Mountain regions, where the trout is in size and strength a very different fish from his representative of the angling territory farther East. Gifford Pinchot plays a prominent part in several chapters, especially in the thirteenth, where we get a vivid description of the ex-Forester's five-hour fight with an enormous yellow-tail, on a six-ounce split bamboo trout-rod, with a six-thread line—an unsuccessful fight, so far as bringing the fish to gaff was concerned, but catching the fish is not always the most important point, when Mr. Holder is on hand with his note book. Mr. Pinchot's presence gives opportunity for an occasional side glance at the conservation question, but it is unnecessary to state here on which side the author's sympathies lie. The mercenary exploiter of our forests, mineral deposits, and water power, on the basis of the greatest immediate profit to the private interests concerned, is only the well-known fish and game hog in another sphere of operations.

A chapter of unique interest describes a journey by motor car through the great cactus forest of the delta of the Rio Yaqui, in Sonora, Mexico, "one of the marvels of the plant world, alluring in its riotous colors, its uncanny beauty, its fascinations of shape, size, and variety"—a marvel destined soon to pass out of existence, however, since the final subjugation of the fierce Yaqui Indians has made it possible to take advantage of the unsurpassed natural fertility of the delta, with its ample facilities for comparatively inexpensive irrigation. As might be expected, a New York syndicate is already in possession, John Hays Hammond and Major Frederick R. Burnham among its members. Mr. Holder's trip, in company with Major Burnham, had for its object the relocation of the famous inscribed stone originally discovered by the Major two years ago.

The illustrations are generally good in themselves, but one wonders whether they were not inserted into the text by a blind man. A chapter devoted to the amusement of revolver shooting at whale-killers is "illustrated" by a photograph of Shadow Lake, near Tahoe in the high Sierras, a view of some stony peaks taken from a Yosemite trail, and a forest scene in the Sierra Nevada. It is not perhaps necessary to hold a book on sport up to academic standards of English expression, but an author who can cast a fly neatly and handle successfully several hundred feet of line with a leaping tuna at the end, ought not to snarl the thread of his narrative so badly as he has done in the sentence with which we close:

> Bill slipped the net beneath him like the artist he was, then, as I unreeled and allowed the resilient whip of the rod to straighten out, Bill lifted the finest, plumpest, biggest—no, not quite the biggest, but one of the biggest, salmon into the Irresistible Arabella, as the boat was named, ever seen, that is, rarely seen, in the waters of Monterey Bay.

A Complete Grammar of Esperanto, the International Language. With graded exercises for reading and translation, together with full vocabularies. By Ivy Kellerman, A.M., Ph.D. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.25.

In the introduction, the author informs us that as "a stepping-stone to both ancient and modern languages, Esperanto may render invaluable aid, and pave the way for surmounting the many difficulties confronting both student and teacher." We have long been in search of such a linguistic panacea, and our sympathies grew warm for Esperanto, for which an unexpected use had been found—namely, that of aiding in the study of those languages which it is supposed to supplant. But, alas, here are some of the stepping-stones contained in the book. We are told that *o* in "toll" and "for" are identical, or, at least, it makes no difference how you pronounce it; we learn that *uj* is a diphthong like *ui* in "ruin" or *u(e)y* in "gluey"; that *kz* "must not be modified to the *gs* or *ks* represented by *x* in exist," although we had imagined that both *kz* and *gs* were impossible sound combinations; we hear that "*n* and *g* are pronounced separately in the combination *ng*, producing the sound *ng* heard in 'linger,' not that in 'singer.'" Obviously, the author's A.M., Ph.D. were not obtained in old-fashioned phonetics, such as lie at the foundation of the ancient and modern languages.

In his desire to give "clear" definitions, he has twisted the well-established statements in the grammars into expressions that may have some meaning in Esperanto, but that need a commentary in plain English, as, for example, this: "A pronoun which refers to the same person or thing as the subject of the verb in the sentence, but is used in some other relation than subject of that verb, is said to be used reflexively, or to be a reflexive pronoun." This is not true for all languages, and certainly not for English, where the reflexive pronoun refers back to the logical, not the grammatical, subject; hence the usage in Esperanto is left obscure. Again, we are informed (p. 18) that "in Esperanto the preposition does not affect the form of the word governed, which remains in the nominative case," and yet (p. 27) "when the verb in a sentence expresses motion, the word indicating the place, person, or thing toward which the motion is directed is given the accusative ending. This is also true if the word is the complement of any preposition which does not itself sufficiently indicate motion in a certain direction. The prepositions *al*, to, towards, *gis*, as far as, *tra*, through, express motion in the direction of their complements, and could not well be used except in a sentence whose verb expresses motion, consequently the accusative is not used after any of these three." Here we have a contradiction with the first rule, an exception, as it were, and an exception to an exception. It seems to us the Greek and Latin prepositions are somewhat simpler.

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Prepositions are pesky things, so we get the delightfully childish information that (p. 205), "since prepositional uses are not exactly alike in any two languages, it is not always possible to translate a preposition of one language by what its equivalent in some senses is in another. In order to insure some means of translating correctly (!) into Esperanto any prepositional phrase of the national languages, the preposition *je* is regarded as of rather indefinite meaning. In addition to its use in dates and allusions to time, it may be employed when no other preposition gives the exact sense required (?), especially in protestations and exclamations, expressions of measure, and of indefinite connection"; and this Procrustean preposition is to be employed in such apparently *definite* connections as "to rely upon, to take interest in, to provide with, to laugh at, to yearn for, to be ashamed of." The vocabulary does not often help us in the matter of construction. How are we to translate "to shoot at," "he is cut out for a teacher," "clever at," "to charge to," and thousands of similar common expressions? Not the slightest hint is given, but, on the contrary, one is puzzled at a mass of synonyms, without having the least idea how to determine the connotations. Apparently, Esperanto is above such trifles as correct construction, right connotation, discrimination of synonyms, and all those points which form the essence and virtue of human speech. Nothing is more calculated to give the death stroke to this new homunculus of a language than the easy-going, slipshod treatment of the grammar, as displayed in this "Complete Grammar of Esperanto."

The Historians and the English Reformation. By the Rev. John Stockton Littell, M.A. Milwaukee: The Young Churchman Co. $2.50 net.

"It is the purpose of the present volume to show, by brief but sufficient quotations, what is the estimate placed by all the most widely read and studied histories" upon the English Reformation. The book is written in the implicit belief that "all history is practical because it unfolds to us the certainty of our faith in God as our Father and in ourselves as His children." It is obviously the result of a vast amount of honest but totally misdirected labor.

We find it difficult to decide whether the Rev. Mr. Littell's list of the names of the authors of "all the most widely read and studied histories" is more remarkable for those it contains or for those it omits. Hume, Macaulay, Froude, J. R. Green, Freeman, and Stubbs receive the most attention, but, *en passant*, Sir Thomas Browne, Izaak Walton, Daniel Defoe, Carl Ploetz (epitome), Theodore Roosevelt, the Rev. Andrew C. Zenos, James Richard Joy, and many score of others are mentioned and quoted. Their names are jumbled together, almost without rhyme or reason, and with no indication of what is really important and what is not. To contemporaries, the author seems to have an ineradicable aversion. The works of John Foxe and Sir Thomas More, which will be "widely read and studied" (thank God!) long after the large majority of modern writers here mentioned are utterly forgotten, do not appear at all. Save for one totally incidental quotation from the preface of Stubbs's "Constitutional History," the reader of the Rev. Mr. Littell's book would not learn that the late Bishop of Oxford ever wrote anything but the "Seventeen Lectures on Mediæval and Modern History." The absence of all reference to the many present-day controversies concerning the precise status of the pre-Reformation Church in England is very extraordinary in a work that has so much to say about "continuity."

Fighting the Slave-Hunters in Central Africa: A record of twenty-six years of travel and adventure round the Great Lakes and of the overthrow of Tippu-Tib, Rumaliza, and other great slave-traders. By Alfred J. Swann. With 45 illustrations and a map. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

This is the interesting story of one whose single aim for more than a quarter of a century was to rescue Central Africa from the deadly clutch of the Arab slave-hunter and to open it to civilization. Though he never concealed from the leading slave-traders, Tippu-Tib and Rumaliza, his determination to put an end to their traffic, he treated them so courteously that they became fast friends. On more than one occasion they saved his life, and to their loyal and disinterested attachment he gives a grateful acknowledgment. He treated them as human beings with habits of life and religious convictions to be respected, and so won their confidence and affection. He made a careful study of the natives, noting every detail of their actions in order to get a glimpse of their real selves. The book contains the best account of the East African within our knowledge.

Though sent out to Africa in 1882 by the London Missionary Society, he was not a missionary in the common use of the term, but a sailor by profession, and first aided in the transportation of a steel life-boat from the coast to Lake Tanganyika. On the way he established stations on the lake and came into communication with the various tribes living on its shores; in other words, he prepared the way for the Christian teacher. After five years of this work and a short furlough he aided Sir Harry, then Consul Johnston, in the making of treaties with the natives. It was at the time when the partition of East Africa into "spheres of influence" was under consideration, and when before claiming their own right the English were seeking to obtain a willing and amicable agreement with the owners of the country. During the latter half of his African career he was Resident Magistrate of the Nyasaland Protectorate, and in his closing chapters gives some very encouraging facts in regard to its industrial development. As an illustration of the changed order of things he tells of "a man, not yet past the prime of life, who has never stepped inside a craft larger than a canoe, who stops to gaze with awe and wonder at a huge steam vessel as it rushes past, nearly upsetting his frail boat; and as he looks he waves his hand to his son on the bridge, who is piloting and steering the steel monster into port." The Nyasa children are described as "just brimful of fun." He characterizes the only two Congo officers with whom he had dealings as "gentlemen in the highest interpretation of the word in their relations with both white and black. Both were fired with at least as much enthusiasm as myself for the suppression of the slave-trade, and determined to extend to the native races committed to their charge the blessings of civilization." And in an extensive territory success has crowned the efforts of both Belgian and Englishman. "Laughter, dance, and song make the evenings welcomed by ten thousands of young Africans, who in the old hideous times were compelled to restrain their youthful desire to burst into merriment as the sun set, and forced to creep away in terror out of the reach of unseen enemies." Another remarkable illustration of the change is shown in the picture of the beautiful cathedral built by men who a few years ago knew only of structures made of reeds and mud.

Notes.

Houghton Mifflin Company have added to their list of books for the autumn, "The Spirit of Democracy," by Dr. Lyman Abbott; "The Essence of Religion," by the late Prof. Borden Parker Bowne; "The Qualities of Men," by Prof. Joseph Jastro ?, and "A Man's Man," by Ian Hay.

The appearance of DeMorgan's novel "An Affair of Dishonor," is set by Henry Holt & Company for September 13. Somewhat before that will appear Prof. W. G. Howard's edition of Lessing's "Laokoön."

Walter K. Smart announces a forthcoming essay on the morality play, "Wisdom."

"Molly Make-Believe" is the title of Eleanor Hallowell Abbott's new novel, to be published soon by the Century Company. The same firm will issue "Seven Great Statesmen," a volume of essays by Andrew D. White, and "The Refugee," a story of adventure, by Capt. Charles Gilson.

Among the new books which Cassell &

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Company have in hand are Katherine Tynan's novel, "Freda"; "The Light Side of the Law," by George A. Macdonald, and the following numbers of the Pocket Reference Library: "The Pocket Doctor," "English Dictionary," "Proverbs and Maxims," "A Dictionary of Mythology," and "Poetical Quotations."

Mitchell Kennerley will shortly bring out "Lord Alistair's Rebellion," a novel by Allen Upward, and "Songs of the Army of the Night," which are commemorative of the late Francis Adams, and edited by Henry S. Salt.

A treatise on the Arian and Sabellian controversies has been written by Dr. Papaconstantinos and is to be published by the Melville E. Mullen Proprietary of Melbourne.

The report of the World's Missionary Conference recently held in Edinburgh, is to be published in this country in nine volumes by the Revell Company, who also announce a popular story of the conference, in a single volume, entitled "Echoes From Edinburgh."

Some of the writings of Ethel Rolt Wheeler are to be collected in book form by John Lane Company.

Edmund D. Brooks of Minneapolis announces "A Midsummer Memory: An Elegy on the late Arthur Upson," by Dr. Richard Burton.

Little, Brown & Co. have on their list of autumn announcements—Fiction: Mary E. Waller's "Flamsted Quarries"; E. Phillips Oppenheim's "The Lost Ambassador"; the separate publication of Eliza Calvert Hall's masterpiece, "Sally Ann's Experience" from her "Aunt Jane of Kentucky"; "The Man and the Dragon," a political story by Alexander Otis; "The Quests of Paul Beck," by McDonnell Bodkin; and a new edition of two of Anne Warner's books of Susan Clegg stories under the title of "Susan Clegg, Her Friend and Her Neighbors." Travel and Description: "Sicily in Shadow and in Sun," by Maud Howe; "Romantic Days in Old Boston," by Mary Caroline Crawford, illustrated from rare prints and portraits; "The Grand Canyon of Arizona," by George Wharton James; a new edition of Anna Bowman Dodd's "Three Normandy Inns," with twenty-four additional views; new popular illustrated editions of "Untrodden English Ways," by Henry C. Shelley; "Falaise, the Town of the Conqueror," by Anna Bowman Dodd; "Italy the Magic Land," by Lilian Whiting, and "New England Legends," by Samuel Adams Drake. Biography and Memoirs: "Louise Chandler Moulton, Poet and Friend," by Lilian Whiting; "Heroes of California," by George Wharton James; "A Lawyer's Recollections in and out of Court," by George A. Torrey; "The Women Napoleon Loved," by Tighe Hopkins; and "Reminiscences of a K. C.," by Thomas Edward Crispe. Miscellaneous: The first two volumes in the Modern Criminal Science Series; the centenary edition of Charles Dickens's works in thirty volumes; "The Optimist's Good Night," by Florence Hobart Perin; "The Pretty Girl Papers," by Dr. Emma E. Walker; "The Soliloquies of St. Augustine," translated from the Latin by Rose Elizabeth Cleveland; "The Dominion of Canada," by W. L. Griffith in the All Red British Empire Series; "Life Transfigured," by Lilian Whiting; "The Iliad of Homer," translated into hexameter verse by Prentiss Cummings; "The Story of Worcester," by Thomas F. O'Flynn; "The Stronghold of Hope," a new edition of Mary W. Tileston's "Sursum Corda"; a new edition with additional illustrations of "Starting of Life," by Nathaniel C. Fowler, jr.; a new edition of "With a Saucepan Over the Sea," by Adelaide Keen; a new and cheaper edition of "The Rise of the Republic of the United States," by Richard Frothingham; and a book on "Domestic Science," by Ida Hood Clark.

An interesting copy of "An Humble Supplication for Toleration," which was addressed to King James by his deprived ministers, recently came to light in the Archbishop's Library, Lambeth. It is apparently the King's own copy, since it contains private notes in his handwriting; a description of it is found in *Blackwood's Magazine* for September.

The *Geographical Journal* for August has for its leading article Commander Peary's account of the conquest of the Pole, given to the Royal Geographical Society, together with the congratulatory addresses of the veteran Arctic voyagers, Admirals Nares and Beaumont. Referring to the frequent query, what is the good of reaching the Pole, the latter maintained "that no genuine, honest work, which calls for courage, endurance, and self-sacrifice, such as Peary has shown, is ever lost." Dr. Karl Kumm describes a journey from the Niger to the Nile undertaken mainly to determine the line of demarcation between the Mohammedan and pagan countries. In the course of it he stopped at the capital of a Mohammedan kingdom as large as France, "surrounded with a cordon of uninhabited bush some 100 or 200 miles in width," all the villages in it having been destroyed and the people enslaved. As a considerable part of his route was that of the pilgrims from West Africa to Mecca he saw many of their caravans, in which were a considerable number of boys and young women "who are taken as easily transported coinage to Mecca, where they are turned into ready money." Among the other contents are the resolutions, with explanatory sketch-maps and diagram of conventional signs, voted by the committee appointed at a meeting held in London last November to secure the making of an "International Map of the World."

The most hopeful sign of the awakening of Persia is the interest aroused in the education of women. The first and only school for girls in Teheran for many years was that of the American Presbyterian Missionary Society for Armenians. It attracted so much attention, however, that Moslems began to send their daughters, and last year out of 235 students 120 were Mohammedans—the aim being to give an education on the lines of the ordinary high school and to inculcate European ideals of womanhood. The teaching is not free more than a thousand dollars having been paid last year by the patrons of the school for tuition and stationery. A considerable number of the girls are training to be teachers, and a few are already teaching in the Persian schools during a part of the day. Last April a large number of Persian women met in Teheran to discuss problems of education, and there are now more than fifty girls' schools in the city. In this connection it is interesting to note that children are doing an important educational work in non-Christian countries. A traveller in central Africa, Lord Mountmorres, says that a small boy about eight years old "has at last accomplished that which government officials and white missionaries alike have been powerless to achieve," awakened in the natives a desire to improve themselves. "Daily I saw the boy inside one of the enclosures sitting surrounded by its entire inhabitants, while he taught them, children and adults alike, to read and reckon from first primers."

"Maurice Hewlett," being a critical review of his prose and poetry, by Milton Bronner (Boston: John W. Luce & Co.), gives a readable analysis of Mr. Hewlett's experimental career from the minute embroidery of "Earthwork out of Tuscany" to the social criticism of "Open Country." Mr. Bronner displays little variety or eloquence in eulogy, and his style, if adequate, lacks distinction. The little book, which is rather a synoptical review than a criticism, will appeal chiefly to the cult, and to them possibly will be disappointing. Characteristic of Mr. Bronner's attitude is his explanation of a disagreeable subprurient quality in Mr. Hewlett's books. This is met by Mr. Hewlett's declaration that he treats men and women as they are and without prurient intent. Such a defence proves merely that Mr. Hewlett's conscience is clear, leaving the moral and critical issue precisely where it was. Mr. Bronner's account of his hero's early reading and literary admirations may help toward understanding the eclectic quality in Mr. Hewlett. The little book has an excellent portrait as frontispiece.

Norma Bright Carson, the author of "From Irish Castles to French Châteaux" (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.), expresses with equal facility in prose and verse the more obvious impressions of travel. Her pilgrimage was mainly to literary shrines. The numerous illustrations are the usual half-tone cuts after photographs.

Clifton Johnson, who has made of himself an illustrator general of the highways and byways of the country, has now furnished an excellent series of photographs of places made famous by Thoreau, and these have been added to an edition of "Walden," by Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. The letter-press of the book is excellent.

The last two issues in the series of "Original Narratives of Early American History" (Scribner), are the work of the general editor, Dr. J. Franklin Jameson, which is a certain guarantee of their value, reliability, and unqualified excellence in matters of selection and annotation. In one of them, "Johnson's Wonder-Working Providence of Sion's Saviour in New England," a history of New England from 1628 to 1651, the editor is personally interested, being a descendant of the author, Capt. Edward Johnson of Woburn, Mass., and for many years a student of the career and writing of his ancestor. The account here given of Johnson's life and labors, the circumstances under which the "history" was written and the dates of actual composition, the motives for writing, the characteristics of the work, notably the habit of "dropping into poetry," on the metre of

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which Professor Dodge of the University of Wisconsin has contributed an illuminating section, and the information as to editions and states supplied for bibliophiles leaves nothing to be desired in the way of introduction and comment. The notes are ample and always helpful, an important factor, since the history is hard reading, and there are many allusions that need explanation and many word-usages that almost call for a glossary. The work is a model edition, not only on what we may call its apparatus side, but also in the intelligent sympathy, without bias, which the editor displays for the mental view of the Puritan in the ranks. Dr. Jameson had displayed the same acute appreciation many years ago in his little book on "Historical Writing in America," where he summed up Johnson's point of view so well that he could not do better than to quote here what he said in his former writing.

The other volume, preceding the "Wonder-Working Providence" in date of issue, is "Narratives of New Netherland, 1609-1664," a work no less authoritative, though of a different character. It is a collection of pieces instead of a single classic narrative, like those of Bradford, Winthrop, and Johnson. It is specially characterized by accurate retranslations of all the Dutch pieces, some of which are distinctly crabbed and rough in style; by the printing of two maps, one of which, hitherto unknown, was found in the Dutch Archives at The Hague, and the other, hitherto inaccurately reproduced, was obtained from among the "Kings Manuscripts" in the British Museum; and by the inclusion of one entirely new topographical narrative of New Amsterdam, found by Miss Davenport among the papers of the Royal Society in 1906, and which J. H. Innes thinks might have been written by a Dutch burgess in Manhattan, possibly with the design of aiding the English seizure. Thus the New Netherland volume is not only a valuable collection of reprints, but is also an actual contribution of new information to the history of the Dutch in America.

It hardly needed an affectionate dedication to Mark Twain to reveal the inspiration of "The Ship Dwellers," by Albert Bigelow Paine (Harper). In fact, Mr. Paine follows so closely the modulated buffoonery of the "Innocents Abroad" that his book may prove very baffling to some Gradgrind of future time, who recalls that the author was Mark Twain's secretary. A round-the-Mediterranean cruise is the occasion of mirth, the foibles of the company and of native guides the staple of the entertainment. It is not bad reading, but has the disadvantages of all imitative work that the cleverer reader will naturally prefer the original. That we have not exaggerated the relation to the "Innocents" let an extract prove. Mr. Paine, when leaving Constantinople, felt that his dragoman expected a substantial tip, and made ready to do the right thing:

> Unfortunately, I was low in fractional currency. I scraped together all I had—a few piastres—and handed them to him and turned away. There came a sudden explosion as of a bomb. I did not look to see what it was—I knew. It was the bursting of Suleiman's heart.

The book is fully illustrated with photographic cuts and clever sketches by Thomas Fogarty, which have apparently suffered in reproduction.

The vacation courses of Edinburgh University are attracting many foreigners. In attendance are fifty students from France, about one hundred from Germany, and, not to mention those few from the various smaller countries, a hundred and fifty British students.

The death is reported of Dr. Edward Charles Wickham, who is best known for his edition of Horace.

Hector Fabre, C.M.G., Commissioner-General for Canada in France since 1882, died last Friday at Versailles. He was born in 1834, was editor, in early life, of the *Ordre* in Montreal and of the *Canadien* and the *Evénement* in Quebec; in 1894 he was made an officer of the Legion of Honor for services rendered to Canada and France. He was the author of "Chroniques," published in 1877.

From Freiburg comes news of the death of Dr. Julius Neumann, professor of political economy at Tübingen. Among his many works should be mentioned "Grundlagen der Volkswirtschaftslehre" and "Zur Lehre von den Lohngesetzen."

Science.

Ancient Plants. By M. C. Stopes, Lecturer in Fossil Botany, Manchester University. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $2 net.

Only a very few years ago, the term fossil botany seemed singularly appropriate to designate the driest and least satisfactory branch of the study of plants. The delicate tracery of fern impressions in the coal, and the sharp outlines of leaves in the strata of ledges, as well as the remains of nuts and other fruits in rocks, all told of life, but all were lifeless and more or less imperfect. Nevertheless, these objects led to serious study. The study was stimulated to a great extent by the discovery of tropical forms in the ledges of the Far North, and by the resulting conjecture to account for the tremendous climatic changes by which the snows had replaced the jungles. Moreover, there were found many forms unlike any which exist at the present time. While it was felt necessary to reconstruct the plant life of the past and bridge over the gaps as well as might be, most of the students of fossil botany worked timidly and did not secure the unreserved confidence of botanists in other fields. Too much credit cannot well be given to the few cautious and yet bold investigators who hazarded guess after guess in regard to the puzzling shapes of the gigantic stems and root-systems in the various deposits, and who dared to place their conjectures on record.

Within the last few years, the character of the study has wholly changed. By the employment of novel methods of research, many of the structures have been subjected to keen analysis, and guesswork has given way largely to positive determinations. Of course, there is not yet complete agreement among investigators concerning the new methods, but the main facts are now in the possession of all, and a trustworthy picture of a great part of the vanished plant life of our planet can be outlined in its essential features. Furthermore, it is now clear that two suggestions ventured long ago and half-heartedly received by the scientific world, prove to have been inspirations. The first of these is that the earlier life on the globe dwelt in the simpler forms of structure; the second, that there has been no break in the line of development, despite the great gaps which exist in the records of the past. Both of these daring conjectures are now accepted as statements of fact. Naturally the greater part of the recent work on plant fossils, since the introduction of the new methods of investigation, has been upon the petrifactions (to use a good old term), in which clear traces of structure can be made out by appropriate treatment.

If the geological age of our earth be divided for convenience into periods separated by definite characters, we are forced to make the very earliest the very longest. The duration of these periods cannot be measured with any degree of accuracy: in fact, their respective lengths can hardly be expressed by ratios; but enough is known to justify us in considering the earliest, and that next following, as relatively longer than all the others put together. The earliest, or oldest, termed the Archæan, yields us practically no plant structures, or even fragments, which can be made out with precision. Nor is this strange. Soft-tissued seaweeds and the like make but poor bases for moulds or casts, and even if the casts had at any time been fairly good, they would, in all likelihood, have been distorted or destroyed by innumerable metamorphoses. Nor is the case much better with the next long stretch of time, called the older or the first half of the great Palæozoic age. This long period is almost as lacking in determinable traces of life as its immediate predecessor, the Archæan, but the latter half is filled with most interesting organisms. For convenience, this latter half, often called the Newer Palæozoic, is subdivided into three portions, known, respectively, as Devonian, Carboniferous, and Permian. The plants of the Carboniferous period have been more carefully studied than those of the periods associated with it, and a great deal is known in regard to their structure and their mode of life. Concerning this period, the author says, there were then, "as there are to-day, oceans and continents, high lands, low lands, rivers, and lakes, in fact all the physical features of the present day world, but they were all in different places from those of to-day."

The author then passes to the transi-

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tion period, the Permian, and traces most of the changes with clearness and skill. This skill is especially manifest when the tissue structure of the fossil plants of the later periods are described and compared with that of the present day. Technicalities have been reduced to a vanishing point, so that it is possible for the general reader to see how truly these newer results reached in the botany of fossils light up the whole field of evolution. The stupendous pageant of plant life in the past is described in dignified language with no attempt at sensational effect.

In this pageant, which moves through creation, plants have a place unique and vitally important. Yet so quietly and so slowly do they live and move that we in our hasty motion often forget that they, equally with ourselves, belong to the living and evolving organisms. . . . This glimpse into the past suggests a prophecy for the future. Evolution, having proceeded steadily for such vast periods, is not likely to stop at the stage reached by the plants of to-day. What will be the main line of advance of the plants of the future, and how will they differ from those of the present? It seems possible that an important group, if not the dominant group, of flowering plants in the future will be so organized that the individual flowers will be very simple, with fewer parts than those of to-day, but that they will be combined in communities of highly specialized individuals in each flower-head or cluster. . . . Whether in the epochs to come flowering plants will continue to hold the dominant position which they now do is an interesting theoretical problem. Flowers were evolved in correlation with insect pollination. One can conceive of a future, when all the earth is under the dominion of man, in which fruits will be sterilized for man's use, as the banana now is, and seed formation largely replaced by gardener's cuttings. . . . Why do plants evolve at all? Why did they do so through the geological ages of the past and why should we expect them to do so in the future? Response to environment is undoubtedly a potent factor in the course of evolution, but it is not the cause of it. There seems to be something inherent in life, something apparently apart from observable factors of environment, which causes slight spontaneous changes or mutations; and some individuals of a species will suddenly develop in a new direction in one or other of their parts. If, then, this places them in a superior position as regards their environment or neighbors, it persists, but if not, those individuals die out.

It remains to say that, while this treatise is readable and attractive, it is sound as a scientific guide, and can serve as a handbook to all botanical teachers who wish to widen their outlook and gain a clearer comprehension of the relations of the whole domain of plant life. It is a stimulating book.

At the Académie de Médecine, Paris, Dr. Lancereaux has presented the results of several hundred observations on a point of general interest outside technical medicine. It concerns the "hobnailed" liver of certain hard drinkers, or, scientifically, that affection of the liver known as atrophic and retractile granulated cirrhosis. In Paris, at least, this is not a disease of drinkers of alcohol proper, that is, of distilled alcoholic drinks, whose liver indeed grows large, but does not grow retractile. It is exclusively the disease of persons who drink every day for ten years or so from two to four quarts of wine—and in England of those who similarly drink ale or beer. As this fact seems to show that the affection of the liver is not caused by the alcohol in the wines, and as it is not the coloring matter, since white wine is more injurious than red, observations were begun with the various salts existing in modern wines and beers. It was found that the sulphate and bisulphate of potash, which are used to preserve wines and beers, when dissolved with the food of rabbits and dogs, produce a like affection of the liver after varying spaces of time from six to eighteen months. Embryonic conjunctive elements are formed in the portæ and lobular interstices precisely as in the livers of wine and beer-drinkers. The other salts in wines and beers produced no hepatic lesion at all. These experiments have been reproduced three different times since 1893, and Dr. Lancereaux has no doubt that the peculiar liver affection is to be attributed to their presence in drinks. This has been checked off by the topographical statistics of wine-drinker's cirrhosis. It is rare where wine is drunk on the spot in its natural state; it is common where the preservative has been used for transportation. In English beer from two to three grammes of sulphate of potash has been found per litre, and the same liver cirrhosis is common in England. It kills twelve to sixteen persons a week in Paris.

The object of "Abnormal Psychology," by Isador H. Coriat (Moffat, Yard & Co.), the writer says in the introduction, is to bring within the compass of a single volume all the investigations on psychology that are scattered in technical journals. The object has not been attained. In fact, there is very little evidence, save this statement, that any serious attempt has been made to accomplish it, and the book is in reality an unconvincing presentation of the teachings of Freud, Janet, Jastrow, and Prince. Uncritical, unscientific, unauthoritative, the bulk of the volume is made up of winnowings from these writers, and of reports of "cases." As an example of unscientific and uncritical statement we quote: "We may state in general, however, although this will not bear rigid critical analysis, that the brain probably stores up impressions in the manner that the phonograph cylinder stores sound vibrations and reproduces the sounds." Such a statement will bear no kind of analysis. After outlining five theories of the subconscious, he says: "A more practical theory, and one better supported by the evidence, is that active thinking processes may exist although we may not be aware of them. These subconscious mental states of which we are unaware may have intense emotions, may fabricate, or may even work out complex intellectual problems." The theory may be good; the form of stating it robs it of any verisimilitude. Throughout the book there is a marked duality of thought, as if the writer were perversely illustrating his theory of subconscious, and its consequences, in the domain of logical thinking.

Dr. Charles Anthony Goessmann, one of the most conspicuous figures in agricultural chemistry in this country, died a week ago at Amherst, Mass., at the age of eighty-three years. For nearly forty years he was an active member of the Massachusetts Agricultural College; he retired when he was eighty years old, under a pension from the Carnegie Institution. He was educated at the University of Göttingen, where he received his doctor's degree. In 1857 he reported a new sugar plant, *Sorghum saccharatum*, and in the same year came to America, accepting in 1869 the professorship of chemistry in the Massachusetts Agricultural College. He introduced the laboratory method of instruction in his department, establishing in 1878 an experiment station, illustrating to such an extent its practical value that a few years later the State made definite provision for a station, and appointed him head. Under his direction the station became an efficient aid to the farmer and to the agriculture of the State, and was from the first one of the leading institutions of its kind in the country.

Music and Drama.

Musik-Lexikon. Von Hugo Riemann. Leipzig: Max Hesse.

Of all the books on musical subjects ever printed, the one most indispensable to professionals and amateurs alike is Professor Riemann's "Musik-Lexikon." It was an advance on all previous works of the kind when it first came out, in 1882, and since then it has been steadily improved to a point which makes it difficult to glance at any page without marvelling at the author's erudition combined with a rare art of lucid condensation. It is no wonder that the Lexikon has been translated into several other languages (English in 1893), or that in its original it has reached its seventh edition. The first had 1,036 pages, the fifth 1,284, and the seventh has 1,621. It is to be hoped it may not become necessary to divide it into two volumes. To prevent that, it might be advisable to save space by condensing the lists of forgotten and unimportant works by minor composers of past epochs.

What increases an expert's admiration of Riemann's lexicon is the knowledge that it is by no means, like most other works of the kind, a compilation of data from previous books on the same subject, but brings, on nearly every page, evidence of the author's own painstaking researches. He is Germany's leading musical historian of our time, if not of all time, having thrown floods of light on many obscure mediæval points in particular. His textbooks on harmony, counterpoint, fugue, instrumentation, etc., are unsurpassed and original, like everything he does,

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and his knowledge is not merely theoretical, but exemplified in a number of compositions. With all his technical knowledge, he is never pedantic, but always searches for the meaning of things; indeed, the most valuable of the articles in the Lexikon are those concerned with musical interpretation and expression. The two columns on Ausdruck should be learned by heart by all who sing or play any instrument, while those on Phrasierung are equally important; Dr. Riemann has invented new signs for correct phrasing, and many compositions by the great masters have been brought out in editions provided with these. He has invented a word much needed, "Agogik," to express those minute modifications of pace so essential to expression and usually referred to by the misleading words, *tempo rubato*. His brief dissertation, under "Dynamik," on changes in loudness, from pianissimo to fortissimo, is poetic as well as suggestive. If music-students would look up these articles, and others along the same lines, they would learn more than from hundreds of the usual technical lessons. Special attention must also be called to the article on the minor mode (Moll), on which the author has important views of his own.

In the case of the principal composers there is usually a brief estimate of the value of their works which is generally admirable; exception may be made to the remarks on Grieg's self-imposed nationalistic handicap—one of the few points in which the professor has obviously copied current comment instead of investigating the matter for himself. He is most liberal in his estimate of modern composers, but draws the line at the two men who are at present the most prominent in Germany; and he does this notwithstanding that both Richard Strauss and Max Reger were for a time his pupils. Instead of feeling proud of this distinction, he reproaches Reger with having got to a point in harmonic daring and modulatory arbitrariness where it has become impossible to follow him; and concerning Strauss he says: "His last works have more and more estranged his friends. Only too distinctly he reveals his striving for sensation at all cost, which is hostile to serious art. More and more does his fame appear as a colossus on feet of clay."

For reasons unknown, the editor of the otherwise excellent new edition of Grove's "Dictionary of Music and Musicians" omitted the names of writers of books on music unless they had also composed some trifles. Owners of the five huge volumes of Grove are thus obliged to seek elsewhere for information on these slighted authors, and in the articles on the masters they will also often look in vain for bibliographic guidance. Under the head of Massenet, for instance, not one book is referred to. Riemann names three out of four or five that are of some importance; he also gives space to lists of the books written by English and American critics. On the other hand, one misses a reference to Maurice Renaud, the greatest of living singing-actors; and why is the incomparable Emma Calvé left out, after having been in previous editions of this Hall of Fame?

Rudolf Besier's comedy "Don," one of the most successful productions of the first season at the New Theatre, has now been published in book form (Duffield & Co.). It is worth the honor of type. On the whole, it reads, perhaps, even better than it acts. It is crisply, brightly, and smoothly written, and the improbability of some of its incidents is less obvious in print than in stage representation. The chief excellence of it as a dramatic composition lies in the deftness and veracity of its characterization and the shrewdness and humor of its observation. The conduct of each individual personage in the cast, with reference to the known facts of a situation common to all of them, is entirely consistent with the mental and moral attitude natural to their indicated habits, training, and experience. Thus a gloss of plausibility is thrown over occurrences which in themselves are unlikely. If the story occasionally borders upon the extravagant, it is, at all events, interesting and amusing, while it is animated by a liberal and humane philosophy.

"Smith," which was produced in the Empire Theatre on Monday evening, is an inferior, possibly an early, specimen of the work of W. S. Maugham. It is probable that its great success in London was due largely to the charm and cleverness of Marie Löhr in the title part. In spite of its assumption of modernity, the personages and the plot are alike conventional. A ruined London broker, who has become a farmer in Rhodesia, returns to England after years of prosperous labor to renew old friendships and find a wife. Disgusted by the heartless, frivolous, and demoralizing life led by his fashionable sister, her complacent husband, her reputed lover, and her feminine associates, he resolves to marry Smith, the parlor-maid, the one woman who has exhibited capacity and a sense of the primitive virtues. It is only one more exercise upon the old theme of the simple and the artificial life. The moral of it all is unobjectionable, if obvious, but the illustration of it is neither rare nor valuable. It is most essentially theatrical when it attempts to be most impressive. Like all Mr. Maugham's writings, it contains some effective satire, many entertaining lines, and some humorous situations, but there is about it more suggestion of labor and artifice than of sincere purpose. The piece is well but not brilliantly played at the Empire. John Drew, one of the most facile of comedians within the somewhat narrow limits of his own personality, is only occasionally at home in the part of the returned colonial, and Miss Mary Boland was only moderately successful as Smith. Individual mention of other players is not necessary.

Julian Edwards, the composer, died last Monday at the age of fifty-four. Before coming to this county, in 1888, Mr. Edwards was conductor of the Royal English Opera Company and produced some of his best work, notably the opera, "Victorian," which was based upon Longfellow's poem, "The Spanish Student." His other serious operas were "Elfinella" and "Corinne." In addition, he wrote comic operas and musical comedies, a lyrical drama, cantatas, and songs, of which the best known is "When Johnny Comes Marching Home."

Art.

Aquatint Engraving. A chapter in the history of book illustration. By S. T. Prideaux. London: Duckworth & Co.

It is not the title but the sub-title which characterizes this book. Apart from a chapter on "the use of aquatint in France and the aquatint work of Goya," it is essentially a record of English books with aquatint plates published before 1830. That leaves out of consideration prints published separately, American work from the crude early efforts in the *Port-Folio* (1811) to the numerous views by John Hill and W. J. Bennett, the portraits of St. Memin, and all use of the medium by modern artists. If the history of aquatint is, as the author says, "but a small corner in the history of art," hitherto covered, at most, by a chapter or a few pages in handbooks on prints, one might wish that she had taken in the entire field; all the more as her digressions bring in not a few irrelevant facts. However, for what she has done in a little-worked field, in this first separate study of aquatint, the author deserves the thanks of all interested. If she has not furnished a complete history of the art, she has fully covered, for England, the period during which it had its greatest vogue.

Aquatint has a fascination quite its own, and is a pleasing art within its somewhat limited resources. Miss Prideaux recalls some delightful books, notably the "Microcosm of London" and Richard Ayton's voluminous "Voyage Round Great Britain." In the last-named the possibilities of delicate effect are particularly well utilized in the skies, and aquatint was used for a like purpose in several of the mezzotint plates of Turner's "Liber Studiorum," besides those mentioned by the author. Examination of these "Liber" plates makes clear the essential difference between mezzotint and aquatint as then practised. There is delicacy in the aquatint, but flat tones rather than gradations, unchanging surfaces rather than textures. A freer use of the medium in later times has overcome this to a greater or lesser extent.

Aquatint of the period illustrated by this book is virtually a means of reproducing wash-drawings. It was used as such by its inventor, Le Prince, and

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served well to render architectural views and illustrations for numerous books issued in response to an evident interest in foreign lands and picturesque natural beauties. The author's reference to the many points of interest which the student of aquatint will encounter (the development of water-color painting, records of travel and adventure, architecture and topography, history of costume, sports, manners and customs, caricature) brings us to a fundamental factor in the interest in prints, in fact in all graphic art. It is impossible to get away absolutely from the subject interest. It is present, in some degree, in all prints, from block-book illustrations to the etchings of Whistler. It is particularly salient, sometimes paramount, in the work which is dealt with in the present book. The volume has a useful index.

An edition of "Thyrsis" and "The Scholar-Gipsey" is in preparation, with ten colored plates after water-colors by W. Russell Flint, of which seven are drawn directly from the scenes mentioned in the poems.

The Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts and the Philadelphia Water Color Club announce an exhibition of original work in water-color, black and white, pastel, or drawing with pencil, crayon, or pen, or illustrations in whatever medium, to be held at the Academy, beginning Monday, November 14, and ending Sunday, December 18. All works intended for exhibition must be entered upon regular entry cards, which should be sent to the Academy by Saturday, October 22. Through the kindness of Charles W. Beck, jr., a prize of one hundred dollars will be awarded to the best work in the exhibition that has been reproduced in color for the purpose of publication. The jury of artists will make the award, but may withhold the prize if, in their judgment, no work is of sufficient merit. The selection of exhibits is committed to the following jury of artists, and the arrangement thereof to the hanging committee. Jury of selection, Colin Campbell Cooper, Blanche Dillaye, George Walter Dawson, Edward Dufner, Elizabeth H. Ingham, and Hermann Dudley Murphy; hanging committee, Thomas P. Anshutz, Colin Campbell Cooper, and George Walter Dawson; Academy's committee on exhibition, Clement B. Newbold, chairman.

The fourteenth annual report of the Worcester (Mass.) Art Museum gives an account of various activities in the way of teaching, popular lectures, loan exhibitions, and purchases. During the year something more than $82,000 was put into acquisitions, mostly pictures, which include The Fur Jacket, by Whistler; two very fine portraits, Mr. and Mrs. William James, by Hogarth; a *genre* piece by Brekelenkam, and canvases by Bonington, Wilkie, and A. H. Wyant. Living American painters added to the collection are Benson, Mary Cassatt, Charles W. Hawthorne, J. Francis Murphy, Dwight W. Tyron, and Willard Metcalf. The days of free admission have been increased from two to four weekly. The number of visitors in 1909-1910 was 31,115, a considerable increase above former figures. More than two thousand photographs have been purchased, and the library has been systematically built up. Under the charge of the new director, Dr. Gentner, the museum has clearly extended its usefulness.

An important discovery has been made by Commendatore Boni on the Palatine in Rome. During excavations made in the grotto known as the Lupercal, which adjoins the western side of the Palatine, there was found, in a long and narrow passage, a number of interesting votive figurines, including several terra-cotta heads of Attis. Signor Boni believes that this discovery proves that the figure of Attis found on a medallion of the elder Faustina was not a merely mythological adjunct of the "great mother" Cybele, as has been commonly supposed, but that Attis was associated with her in her temple on the Palatine, from which these figurines probably came. Besides figures of Attis, there was found a number of terra-cotta animals.

Finance.

THE VOICE OF THE STOCK MARKET.

Two incidents of the past week were of sufficient importance to financial calculations to excite some interest as to the manner in which the stock market would respond to them. One was the weekly bank statement of last Saturday; the other, last Tuesday's Vermont election, an event traditionally known as the first gun of an autumn political campaign. Three weeks ago, the surplus reserve of the New York banks reached an unusually high figure—equalled in magnitude, during the present generation, only in the years of liquidation and accumulation of idle bank resources, 1894, 1904, and 1908. It was rather generally imagined that this great reserve was acquired through drawing temporarily, to New York, of the cash which Western banks had been keeping at home to protect their own reserves.

Such a process necessarily inferred a rapid shrinkage of the New York reserve when the Western banks should need their New York balances for the autumn harvest trade. From the $55,700,000 of August 13, this surplus fell to $50,600,000 on August 20, to $49,000,000 on August 27, then, suddenly, to $31,800,000 on September 3. The $17,000,000 decrease in the surplus, last week, was in actual fact the largest decrease ever reported in the history of New York banking except for four occasions—the week in February, 1909, when the New York trust companies drew heavily on their bank credits to establish cash reserves of their own as required by the new State law; the week in November, 1907, when the panicky rush to draw out bank deposits was at its height, and the two weeks in 1894 when the Treasury was borrowing gold from New York bank reserves to protect its own reserve against legal tender notes. No such peculiar cause for a heavy shrinkage in reserves existed last week; yet two more weeks of an equally rapid decrease would have exhausted the New York surplus.

The Vermont election news is always watched by Wall Street in an exciting political year, because of the curious fact that in past elections a Republican or Democratic success in the November vote has been foreshadowed according as Vermont's Republican plurality for Governor in September ran above or below 25,000. Last Tuesday's vote resulted in a plurality, according to the next morning's figures, of barely 17,500—one of the poorest showings for the Republicans in the present generation. The stock market receded a little on the news of each of these two developments in the situation, yet on the whole, prices moved only apathetically. Wall Street's explanation was, that the prolonged and violent decline in prices, during the first seven months of 1910, had abundantly "discounted" what had happened.

As time goes on, the nature of this declining market of 1910 is likely to be more and more clearly comprehended. It cannot yet be said, however, that the philosophy of the break in prices is universally understood, and there are incidents of the day which have suggested that in certain quarters it may be wholly misunderstood. A couple of years ago, the Wall Street community made merry with a financial theory set forth to Congress by Senator La Follette. There were one hundred selected millionaires, the Senator explained, who start and stop panics, who make prosperity and adversity, and before whose machinations the laws of political economy are helpless. No one has dabbled in that particular theory since the Senator himself was laughed out of court concerning it.

But now comes an almost exactly parallel theory in as completely different a quarter as could be imagined. This time it is a railway president who, after demonstrating to his own satisfaction how impossible, on any rational theory of finance, was the fall in 1910 of the stock which outstripped all others in the speculation for the rise of 1909, returns to the purely anthropomorphic theory of finance. It was not liquidation; it was not overspeculation; it was not a glut of new securities; it was not even political apprehension. Not at all; "a score of raiders, understanding human nature, its fears and moods, play with investors, and at will make the financial refrain one of sorrow or joy. The market falls or rises at their will, and no organist more completely masters his instrument than does this lot of

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raiders, working all stops of the organ of speculation."

It is not perhaps worth while to argue seriously over Mr. Stillwell's conception of economic movements, any more than over Senator La Follette's. It is only in so far as either gives voice to a popular delusion that the matter is of general interest. Each of the two explanations of the market has a certain surface plausibility which attracts the ignorant, and each may fairly enough be characterized as the nearest approach, in the complex civilization of our day, to the belief in brownies, demons, and witches that prevailed in a cruder past. The notion that any very unpleasant occurrence cannot have come about from natural causes, but must have been brought to pass by secret enemies with magic powers, was for centuries common to humanity, and it has not absolutely lost its sway, even now.

In the case of Wall Street, when one seriously considers the notion that the whole structure of financial values was pushed down by a small group of irresponsible and malicious "raiders," it must be manifest that only with magic powers could the raider achieve his purpose. The odds against him, in his labor of destruction, were stupendous; the great banks, the powerful banking houses, and the "inside financiers" were all opposed to the attempt to force down prices. How could "a score of raiders" so utterly rout and humiliate these tangible potencies of finance, without the aid of necromancy?

The answer is that they could not have done it, and that they did not do it; that the people who tried to pursue their purposes in defiance of financial law were the operators, not of 1910, but of 1909; that the long decline in Stock Exchange prices during 1910 resulted from forces within the financial situation itself—among them being a visible overstrain on credit and capital, a great excess of supply over demand in the market for new securities, and a "boom" on the stock markets of the world, last year, so premature and so greatly overdone as to invite the wholly inevitable penalty of financial blunders. But at the same time, it is the usual rule in Wall Street that a long decline of the sort not only squares the financial account for past excesses, but, in addition, "discounts" very much of whatever unfavorable incidents may be ahead of us.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Benson, E. F. The Osbornes. Doubleday, Page. $1.20.

Brown, G. G. The Holy Bible Repudiates Prohibition. Louisville, Ky.: The author. $1.

Brubacher, A. R., and Snyder, D. E. High School English, Book One. Merrill Co. $1.

Cicero. Selected Orations and Letters, with Notes, etc., by H. W. Johnston and H. M. Kingery. Revised ed.; also Text Edition for use with preceding. Chicago: Scott, Foresman.

Curtis, A. T. Anne Nelson, a Little Maid of Province Town. Fenno. $1.25.

Foster, A. G. By the Way. San Francisco: Paul Elder. $1.50 net.

Gask, L. True Dog Stories. Crowell. $1.50.

Haggard, H. R. Queen Sheba's Ring. Doubleday, Page. $1.50.

Jastrow, M., jr. Die Religion Babyloniens und Assyriens. (15 Lieferung) Giessen, Germany: A. Töpelmann.

Kolle, L. E. The Blue Lawn. Fenno. $1 net.

Ladd, F. P. The Lady of Shenipsit: a Novel of New England. Sturgis & Walton. $1.25 net.

Le Queux, W. The House of Whispers. Brentano. $1.50.

McDuffee, A. L. Nutshell Boston Guide. Nutshell Seeing Boston Co.

Maule, F. I. El Dorado "29." Phila.: Winston Co. $1 net.

Newcomer, A. G., and Andrews, A. E. Twelve Centuries of English Poetry and Prose, selected and edited. Chicago: Scott, Foresman.

New York at the Jamestown Exposition, 1907. Report of the Jamestown Exposition Commission of the State of New York. Albany.

Pinchot, G. The Fight for Conservation. Doubleday, Page. 60 cents net.

Shaw, C. Suffer Little Children: a Child's Life of Christ. Ill. by A. Dudley. Fenno.

Shuttleworth, G. E., and Potts, W. A. Mentally Deficient Children. Third ed. Phila.: Blakiston.

Stern, R. B. Neighborhood Entertainments. Sturgis & Walton. 75 cents net.

Turquan, J. Madame Royale, the Last Dauphine. Ed. and trans. by the Lady Theodora Davidson. Brentano.

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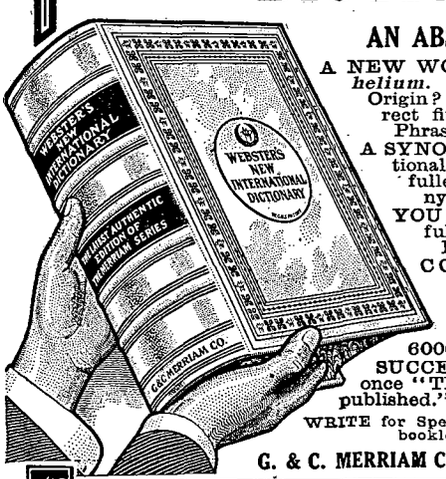

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